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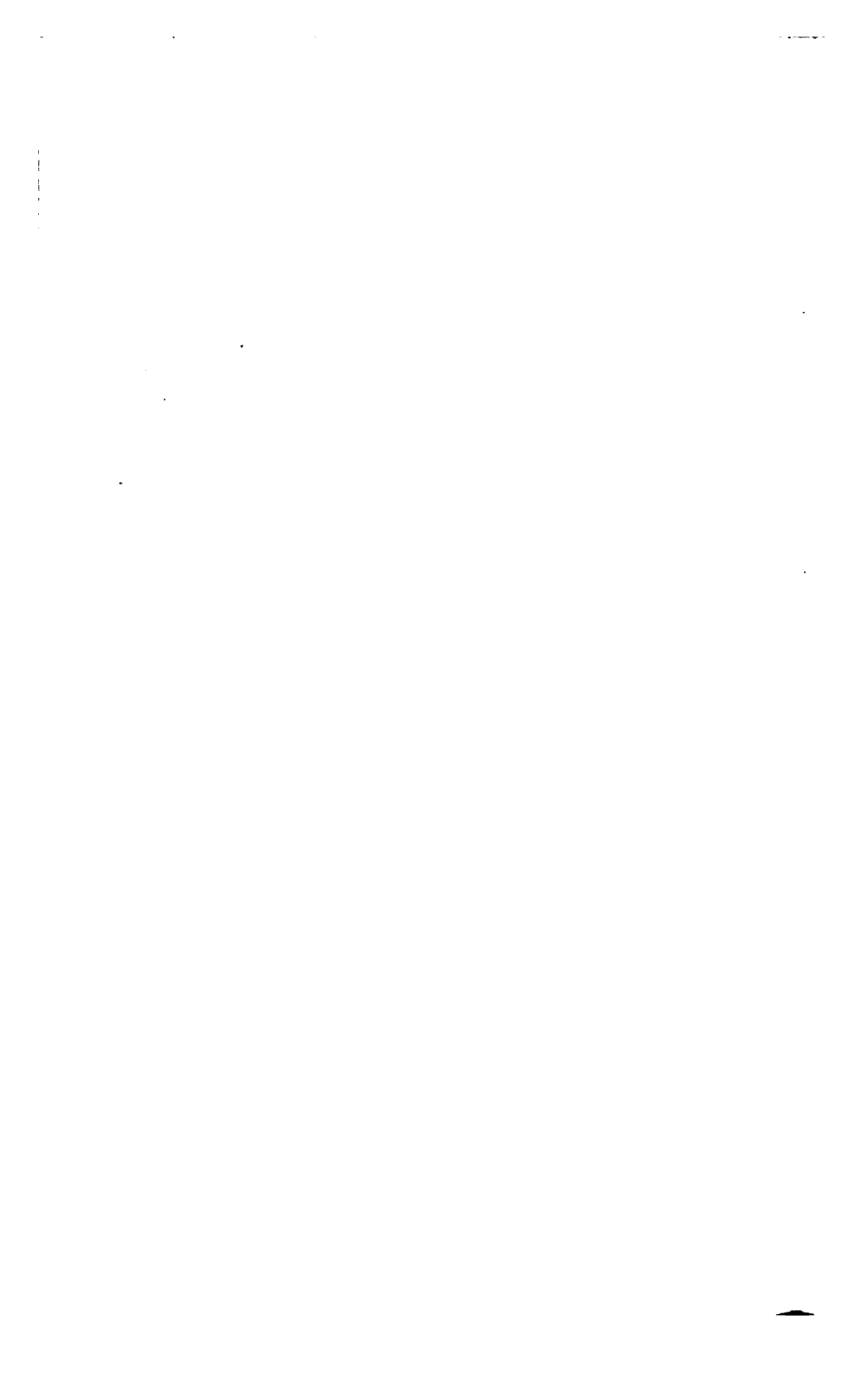
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ANNUAL REPORT

OF THE

DIRECTOR

OF THE

BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS

FOR

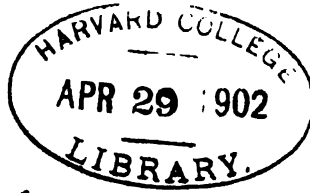
THE YEAR 1898.

WASHINGTON:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.
1899.

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~~San Francisco~~
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*The Bureau of the American
Republics*

BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS,
NO. 2 JACKSON PLACE, WASHINGTON, D. C., U. S. A.

Director.—FREDERIC EMORY.

WASHINGTON, D. C., U. S. A.:
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE.

MESSAGE FROM THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES,

TRANSMITTING

A communication from the Secretary of State inclosing the Annual Report of the Bureau of the American Republics, with accompanying documents.

JANUARY 6, 1899 —Read, referred to the Committee on Foreign Relations, and ordered to be printed.

To the Senate and House of Representatives :

I transmit herewith a communication from the Secretary of State inclosing the annual report of the Director of the Bureau of the American Republics, with accompanying documents.

In view of the improved condition and increasing usefulness of the Bureau, to which I have already called attention in my annual message, and the welcome assurances of greater activity on the part of the other American Republics in support of its purposes, I cordially indorse the recommendations of the Secretary of State. It will doubtless be as gratifying to Congress as it is to me to be informed that the Argentine Republic has decided to renew its relations with the Bureau, and that there are grounds for hoping that the International American Union, created by the impressive conference of the representatives of our sister Republics and those of the United States in Washington in 1889-90, will soon be perfected by the adhesion of the Republic of Chile to the compact for the support of the Bureau as the organ of the Union. The interest of the United States in giving the fullest possible effect to the laudable desire of the International Conference to promote not only trade intercourse but a closer fellowship among the various Republics of this hemisphere is so evident that I am satisfied the progress made by the Bureau as a practical agency for

attaining these objects will receive the commendation and support of Congress.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

EXECUTIVE MANSION,

Washington, January 6, 1899.

THE PRESIDENT:

I have the honor to transmit the annual report of the Director of the Bureau of the American Republics, covering more particularly the provisional management of the Bureau since the death of the former Director, Mr. JOSEPH P. SMITH, on the 5th of February, 1898. The report was read and approved at a meeting of the Executive Committee of the International Union of American Republics on the 17th instant. It will be observed that the efforts of the provisional Director, an officer of the Department of State, who was detailed, with the full concurrence of the Executive Committee, to take charge of the Bureau in February last, have been chiefly addressed to the work of carrying out the more important purposes of the former Director; of meeting financial difficulties, which had resulted mainly from business operations growing out of a contract entered into by the Executive Committee in November, 1896, for obtaining advertisements for the MONTHLY BULLETIN, and of reconciling the objections of publishing and other interests to the competition of a bureau supported, in part, by appropriations from the Congress of the United States, with the desire of the Executive Committee to obtain revenue for the support of the Bureau and the proper extension of its work.

It is gratifying to be able to state that the provisional management has substantially attained these objects, and that the Bureau seems to have entered upon a path of development which promises the gradual fruition of the purposes of the International American Conference of 1889-90 in creating it as an agency for promoting fraternal intercourse and trade among the various

Republics of the Western Hemisphere. The efforts of the Bureau in the past, as was indicated in the annual report of the Director for 1897, have, necessarily, been more or less of an experimental character in consequence of the fact that the plan outlined by the International Conference was novel, both in conception and design, and its execution involved the solution of many perplexing problems. It is hoped that solid ground has at length been reached, and strong encouragement for indulging this hope is found not only in the present condition and prospects of the Bureau, but in the fact that the other members of the Union are giving it their active and cordial support.

From the report of the Director, it appears that the responses to the recent requests for the payment of the annual contributions of the Latin-American countries to the support of the Bureau have already resulted in the payment by five of them of a sum considerably larger than the whole amount received during the previous fiscal year. It will also be noted that certain members of the International Union which, for some years, have ceased to take an active part now evince a desire to resume their former relations with the Bureau and renew their contributions for its maintenance. Among these is the Argentine Republic, which has just given official notice of its intention. The Director also calls attention to expressions of interest on the part of the Chilean Minister to the United States, which justify the hope that Chile, the only country participating in the International American Conference which did not subsequently become a member of the Union, will decide to avail itself of its privilege, thus completing the solidarity of the American Republics in the effort to weld together and promote the common interests of all.

At a time when the thoughts of men are directed more earnestly than ever before to the harvest awaiting the industries and commerce of the United States in other lands, the importance of availing ourselves of the many proffers of friendship from our southern neighbors; in the spirit of fair exchange and mutual

helpfulness, is clearly obvious; and when we consider the many points at which the interests and aspirations of the Latin-American Republics coincide with those which are most deeply graven upon our national life, it would seem to be no less evident that every step taken toward a closer identification in sympathies and purposes must contribute sensibly to the economic and social development of our sister Republics as well as of ourselves. From the point of view of its probable usefulness in these directions, the increasing activity of the Bureau of the American Republics on lines which commend themselves especially to the representatives of the other countries of the International Union seems to me to be a subject for special congratulation, and I would respectfully suggest that the attention of Congress be called to the fact that the effort is being made to economize as well as to develop the Bureau's resources, so that its practical utility may be increased with the least cost to the public treasury.

The Secretary of the Treasury, at my request, has transmitted to Congress the estimates for the Bureau for the next fiscal year, and also the draft of an act permitting the use by the Bureau of amounts received from the other countries during the current fiscal year. The reasons for the proposed legislation are fully stated in communications from the Director of the Bureau accompanying the letters from the Secretary of the Treasury to the House of Representatives, and I hope they will commend themselves to Congress as being fully justified by the actual requirements.

I have the honor to indorse the recommendation of the Director that Congress be asked to authorize the printing of 2,500 copies of the annual report for distribution by the Bureau to meet the demands for information as to its present condition and its plans for the future.

Respectfully submitted.

JOHN HAY.

DEPARTMENT OF STATE,

Washington, December 30, 1898.

ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS.

BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS,
Washington, D. C., December 21, 1898.

SIR: In pursuance to instructions from the Executive Committee of the International Union of American Republics, at its meeting on the 17th instant, I have the honor to request that the accompanying report of the operations of the Bureau of the American Republics during the past year, together with a brief synopsis of the proceedings of the Executive Committee at the recent meeting, be submitted to the President, with the view to its transmission to the Congress of the United States.

In addition to the announcement in the report that the Republic of Chile may, for the first time, give its active support to the Bureau, I am happy to be able to state that official information has just reached me that the Argentine Republic, which, since 1891, has not contributed to the support of the Bureau, has decided to take the necessary steps for the renewal of its former relations. For this welcome result, special acknowledgment is due the Argentine Minister in Washington, Dr. MARTIN GARCIA MÉROU, who has been at special pains to impress upon his Government the increasing usefulness of the Bureau.

In order that the Bureau may be enabled to answer inquiries from many quarters as to its condition and purposes, I would

respectfully recommend that Congress be asked to authorize the printing of an edition of 2,500 copies of the annual report for distribution by the Bureau.

I have the honor to be, sir, your obedient servant,

FREDERIC EMORY,

Director.

The SECRETARY OF STATE.

*PROCEEDINGS OF THE EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE,
INTERNATIONAL UNION OF AMERICAN REPUB-
LICS, SATURDAY, DECEMBER 17, 1898.*

WASHINGTON, D. C., *December 17, 1898.*

The executive committee of the International Union of American Republics met in the diplomatic reception room, Department of State, Saturday, December 17, 1898, at 11 a. m.

The meeting was called to order by Hon. JOHN HAY, Secretary of State, as chairman.

The other members present were—

Señor Dr. DON MARTIN GARCIA MÉROU, Argentine minister.

Señor DON JOAQUIN BERNARDO CALVO, Costa Rican minister.

Señor DON MANUEL M. PONTE, chargé d'affaires of Venezuela.

The Director of the Bureau of the American Republics, Mr. FREDERIC EMORY, was also present.

The committee having signified its readiness, the Director read the annual report of the Bureau, after which he explained the leading features of the financial statement, as follows:

The first page gives the receipts and expenditures during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1898. I did not take charge until the 5th of February, 1898, and the detailed statement on the next page will show how I expended the money during the remainder of the fiscal year. Page 3 is a statement of the receipts and

expenditures from July 1, 1898, to November 30, 1898, and this is important, because it shows the existing condition of the Bureau and its resources. The annual appropriation was \$36,000 and the expenditures from that appropriation were \$19,430.79, leaving a balance December 1, 1898, of the appropriation of \$16,569.21. The receipts from advertisements and sales of Commercial Directory and other publications amount altogether during this period, July 1 to November 30, to \$17,812.35, the expenditures to \$16,078.85, leaving a balance of \$1,733.50. To that I have added the face value of the advertising December 1, 1898, \$16,500, and uncollected bills, \$8,000, showing the total resources of the Bureau December 1, 1898, to be \$42,802.71. The fourth table shows the expenditures made by me since the 1st of July to the 1st of December in detail, and in that statement appears an item—commissions on contract prior to March 1, 1898—which means that those commissions were earned before I took charge of the Bureau and that I have been settling them as well as I could.

The ARGENTINE MINISTER (MR. MÉROU): We find the report of Mr. EMORY to be very satisfactory, and we can fully approve it. It is very gratifying to be informed that the Government of Chile may come into the Union with the other Latin-American countries and unite with us, thus making it complete. I think perhaps it would be well to put upon the record some expression of this committee's pleasure in that regard.

The MINISTER FROM COSTA RICA (MR. CALVO): I fully concur with the suggestion of the minister from Argentina, and hope the Director of the Bureau will be authorized to express to the minister of Chile the sincere desire of the committee that Chile may come into the Union.

The CHAIRMAN: In accordance with the expressions of the committee, the Director will please communicate to the minister from Chile the gratification of the committee at the prospect of Chile becoming a member of the Union.

The report was then approved, and the Director was instructed to take the usual course for its transmission to the Congress of the United States.

The committee thereupon adjourned.

ANNUAL REPORT.

BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS,

Washington, December 17, 1898.

The Secretary of State, Chairman and

Members of the Executive Committee of the

International Union of American Republics.

GENTLEMEN: I have the honor to submit a report of the operations of the Bureau of the American Republics since I was placed in charge of it upon the death of the late Director, Mr. JOSEPH P. SMITH, on the 5th of February, 1898. The premature loss to the Bureau of the services of Mr. SMITH, who had been its Director less than a year, cut short the prosecution of plans which he had conceived and partly carried into effect for greatly enlarging the scope and practical usefulness of the work which the International American Conference had in view when it created the Bureau in 1890. The details of Mr. SMITH's purposes are clearly set forth in the annual report prepared by his direction—but never formally approved by him—which I presented to the committee on the 28th of February last, for the reason, as I stated in my communication of that date, that it substantially embodied his views. This report gives a careful summary of the work of the Bureau up to the time I was designated by the Secretary of State, with the approval of the executive committee, as Acting Director.

The report has been printed by order of the Congress of the United States, and it is, therefore, unnecessary for me to repeat its conclusions. It is gratifying to me, however, to be able to state

that, in so far as it was possible under the conditions I found existing, I have been able to carry forward the purposes to which the late Director attached more particular importance. Among these was the completion of the Commercial Directory of the American Republics, in two volumes, numbering altogether 2,643 pages of carefully collected descriptive and statistical matter, setting forth the natural resources, industries, commerce, and existing laws affecting agriculture and trade enterprises in all of the countries of the Western Hemisphere, together with lists of merchants and manufacturers in each who were believed to be especially interested in the development of trade relations among the different countries. The second volume (1,589 pages) was completed in November last, and the distribution of copies began November 24, 1898, about a year after the publication of the first volume. It is believed that this work, which was wholly conceived by the late Director, is unique in its scope and its general accuracy, and that it will be found to be of great practical value, not only to business houses engaged in or about to enter the Latin-American trade, but as a comprehensive book of reference for all who are seeking information as to the commercial and industrial development of the American Republics and the West Indian and other colonial possessions of this hemisphere. The thanks of the Bureau are especially due to the National Association of Manufacturers and the Philadelphia Commercial Museum for valuable advice and assistance in compiling the commercial lists for that part of the second volume of the Commercial Directory which is devoted to the United States.

Another object which the late Director had especially at heart, as indicated in his annual report, was the development of the Bureau's usefulness on such lines as would commend it to the business houses of the Latin-American Republics as a practical agency for removing obstacles to closer commercial intercourse with the United States and opening new channels of trade. I am happy to be able to state that sensible progress has been made

in this direction, and that I may repeat and emphasize the statement made by the late Director in the annual report for 1897, namely, that "The Bureau is indebted for much of its recent growth to the more active and vigilant participation of the representatives in Washington of the various Republics interested." At the close of the year 1898, the Bureau finds itself in the encouraging position of having the unanimous and cordial support of the diplomatic representatives of all the members of the International Union, and is induced to hope that the Latin-American Republics will exhibit a constantly increasing interest in its affairs. The many expressions of indorsement and approval which are to be found in the files of the Bureau fully justify this expectation. A pleasing incident, confirming this view, was the recent visit to the Bureau of the President of Costa Rica, who, after examination of its workings, expressed his approval and the intention to contribute in every way in his power to its development.

The Bureau also feels itself to be under special obligations to the former member of the executive committee, the minister from Mexico, Mr. ROMERO, who retired from the committee, in conformity with the rule for the change of membership every year, in June last, but has still continued to exhibit an active interest in its affairs; and to the former minister to the United States from Brazil, Mr. MENDONÇA, who, from the beginning of the Bureau, gave it his counsel and zealous support. The Bureau has been honored with expressions of interest in its work from the recently accredited Chilean minister to the United States, Señor DON CARLOS MORLA VICÚNA. These encourage the hope that the Government of Chile, which, although it was represented in the International American Conference, which created the Bureau, has never availed itself of the right to enter the Union, may decide in the near future to give the Bureau its active support.

As I had the honor of reporting to the committee at its

meeting on the 28th of February last, I found the affairs of the Bureau when I took charge of it in a somewhat disordered condition, owing to the long illness of the late Director. The finances were also in an unsatisfactory condition, as the result of a contract entered into by authority of the executive committee, under the late Director's predecessor, in November, 1896. The object of the committee in approving this agreement was to obtain revenue from the advertisements in the MONTHLY BULLETIN of the Bureau to defray the cost of that publication, to improve its contents, and gradually increase its circulation, with the view of disseminating among the various countries information as to the resources, industries, and commerce of each. The contract provided that the solicitor for advertising should receive a commission of 40 per cent upon the face value of the advertising obtained. As a basis for the successful prosecution of these efforts, an edition of the BULLETIN had for some months been printed at a cost of over \$9,000 per month, or \$108,000 per year. The annual gross income from advertising was estimated at \$60,000, but from this amount 40 per cent commission was to be deducted, leaving a net revenue of \$36,000.

Inasmuch as it had been the practice to pay the commissions immediately, and it was necessary to wait for reimbursement until the bills for advertising could be collected, it was obvious that, even if the prospective revenue were likely to be sufficient, considerable capital would be required to meet the immediate outlay. The annual appropriation of the Bureau was but \$28,000, and the enlargement of its work had necessitated the employment of a number of persons in addition to the previous force. A deficiency appropriation of \$41,972 was voted by the Congress of the United States in January, 1898. The Bureau was in arrears at this time for payment of salaries and a number of claims growing out of its business operations, as well as increased work of compilation and translation, typewriting, etc., for various

publications. It was evident that the balance remaining from the deficiency appropriation would not more than suffice for these purposes and the efficient prosecution of the work in progress.

Under these circumstances, I suggested to the executive committee that it would be advisable to terminate the contract for soliciting advertisements upon commission, especially as there had been complaints from several quarters of competition by the agents of a bureau supported in part by the Government of the United States with private interests engaged in the advertising business. Upon the other hand, it seemed possible to accomplish the original intention of the executive committee to obtain revenue for the support of the MONTHLY BULLETIN without solicitation by persons having more or less speculative interest, and without undue competition with private interests, by continuing to offer to merchants and manufacturers the use of the pages of the BULLETIN as a means of making known the merits of their goods in the markets they desired to reach. The executive committee accepted these conclusions, and appointed me Director of the Bureau for a period not to exceed the current fiscal year ending June 30, 1898, with full power to reorganize the affairs of the Bureau, to cancel the engagements entered into for advertising, canvassing for subscriptions, or other business purposes which might seem to me to be injurious to the interests of the Bureau, etc., "having always in view the general interests of the International Union and the wishes of the committee."

Under the authority thus conferred, I at once gave notice of the termination of the advertising contract, and proceeded to reorganize the Bureau with the view of reconciling the business features which seemed to me to be valuable with official limitations and the means at command.

On the 21st of May, 1898, I had the satisfaction of being able to report to the committee that the economies enforced had resulted in a saving in the obligations which were being incurred

when I took charge of the Bureau of about \$5,000 per month, and that I trusted the resources of the Bureau would be sufficient for its purposes for the remainder of the fiscal year ending June 30, 1898. This expectation was realized, the balance of \$702.78 remaining at the end of the said fiscal year. The conclusions and recommendations made by me in the report at the meeting of May 21 were approved by the executive committee.

Upon the 25th of June, 1898, another meeting of the executive committee was held, at which I announced the approaching expiration, June 30, of the term of my appointment as provisional Director. The committee, having satisfied itself that the conditions did not then justify the appointment of a permanent Director, extended my term as provisional Director to the 1st of October, and reaffirmed the special powers which it had conferred on the 28th of February. Further extensions were made at meetings of the executive committee September 27 and October 26, 1898.

At the latter meeting, the renewal of the provisional management was made indefinite, in order that it might not be necessary for the committee to take action again until such time as the plans in process of execution for development of the work upon a more economical basis should reach the point of consummation.

The efforts of the provisional management have necessarily been devoted, to a large extent, to the work of reorganization, completion of the late Director's plans, the settlement of claims, and the adjustment of a number of questions growing out of the change of business methods. It was thought advisable not only to readjust the affairs of the Bureau, but to demonstrate, if possible, the practicability of increasing its usefulness by obtaining a larger revenue from advertising and the sale of publications, thus obviating the necessity of again applying to the Congress of the United States for a deficiency appropriation. It was hoped that this result might be reached without intrenching improperly upon the rights of private individuals engaged in the advertising or

publishing business. The methods employed in obtaining advertisements within these limits are fully set forth in the business announcements in the MONTHLY BULLETIN since the 5th of February last. The results justify the hope that the Bureau will receive the pecuniary support of representative business houses which have an obvious interest in the development of the trade relations of the various American Republics, and that, at no distant day, the BULLETIN may be made self-supporting without the agency of solicitors upon commission and the consequent outlay of money in advance of receipts from the advertisements.

Contracts for advertising have been renewed to the amount of \$4,961 and new contracts have been secured to the amount of \$1,018. These results, though small in proportion to the gross amount secured under the former policy, afford a substantial basis for encouragement in view of the fact that they have been obtained without undue solicitation and will yield the Bureau the full amount of their face value. I have no doubt that the continuance of the present policy as to advertising will, within a comparatively short time, result in placing the BULLETIN upon such a basis that its circulation may be increased, the character of the contents greatly improved, and its expenses provided for independently of Government contributions. The gratuitous distribution of the BULLETIN in the United States has entailed expenditures which, it seemed to me, were not warranted by the Bureau's resources, and the free circulation is now limited to newspapers, trade bodies, libraries, Government officials, and applicants for specific information. Under the circumstances, I have felt warranted in asking that the Congress of the United States shall provide for an edition of 5,000 copies per month for the next fiscal year, ending June 30, 1900, for distribution in this country, as a means of promoting a better knowledge of the resources and commercial possibilities of the Latin-American Republics. An edition of 8,000 copies is distributed in Mexico, Central America, South America, and the

West Indies, and the cost of this edition, as well as of the copies now being distributed in the United States, can, in my judgment, be met by the probable receipts from advertising.

Besides the publication of the Bulletin, the work of the Bureau includes the preparation and printing from time to time of handbooks of the various Latin-American countries. Four of these have been completed, and I am only waiting the means of defraying the cost of printing and distribution. The late Director, in his report, called attention to the fact that the appropriations for the Bureau had never been sufficient to meet the expense of printing the various documents called for by the plan of its operations as outlined by the International Conference, especially in view of the fact that all of them must be printed in the language of the country to which they relate, as well as in English. Upon this point, he said:

Investigation will show that the former Directors of the Bureau were compelled to resort to various expedients to enable them to print the publications which have been issued from time to time. It would have been impossible to do this from the funds at their command. It was done only by means of authority obtained from the Congress of the United States to print the various handbooks and other publications as Congressional documents, to be paid for out of the general printing fund.

As a means of meeting this difficulty, at least in part, the late Director suggested to the representatives of the countries composing the International Union that "steps be taken to secure to the Bureau the use of the amounts contributed by the other Republics, which amounts at present are paid into the United States Treasury, to reimburse the latter to the extent of the different quotas of the countries." This, he estimated, would make the revenue of the Bureau from such sources about \$45,000 or \$50,000. I have taken steps to give this suggestion practical effect, and the Congress of the United States has been asked to authorize the action indicated. The other countries of the International Union have

been requested to state whether they would have any objection to the proposed change, and four of them have already replied, expressing their acquiescence. The amounts which have been received from the other countries have fluctuated from year to year, but I have the pleasure of stating that there are substantial grounds for hoping that this year the contributions will largely exceed the annual average. Notification has reached the Bureau of the prompt payment by five of the countries of their quotas, amounting to \$5,027.78; one of them, Venezuela, having overpaid to the amount of \$540.41 during the fiscal year ended June 30, 1898. This amount is in excess of the total amounts received from the other countries of the Union during the previous fiscal year, viz, \$4,216.02.

Besides its various publications, the Bureau is actively engaged in furnishing information, verbally or by letter, to applicants, not only from the United States but from many quarters in other parts of the world, especially the countries of the International American Union. This branch of the work has grown to such proportions that the late Director established a division of information for the special purpose of answering such inquiries. These have continued to grow in number, and the Bureau is frequently in receipt of letters from the other countries of the Union requesting its aid in securing information in practical trade matters, or in interesting United States capital and enterprise in agricultural, mining, industrial, or commercial possibilities in the various countries. Many of the letters refer in appreciative terms to the MONTHLY BULLETIN of the Bureau, a fact which indicates that that publication is being efficiently distributed in the Latin-American countries and is making itself known as a practical medium of promoting trade. The Bureau responds to requests from promoters of special enterprises seeking capital in the United States only so far as to call attention in the pages of the BULLETIN to such undertakings, and not then unless it has satisfied itself by

careful inquiry that the projects indicated may be properly given such publicity. In cases where it is felt the Bureau can give no aid, the inquirers are referred to such organized trade bodies in the United States as more specifically cover the field they wish to enter.

The questions usually asked relate to the special agricultural and mineral resources of the different countries; the manner of obtaining lands for farming industries, cattle raising, and mining purposes; the methods employed for the production of sugar, coffee, cacao, india rubber, tropical fruits, etc.; and the steps to be taken in order to acquire land, either for individuals or for the conduct of enterprises on an extensive scale. Requests are frequently made for information as to the rates of duties imposed by the tariffs of the several countries upon special articles or classes of merchandise, the port charges and harbor regulations, statistics of exports and imports, conditions imposed by the laws of a country upon industries and trade, the names of government officials to be communicated with on special subjects, etc. From the Latin-American countries come, in increasing number, requests for information as to the markets in the United States for certain products of those countries and the kinds of goods produced or manufactured in the United States which may be taken in exchange, the names of importers and exporters interested in Latin-American trade, and other particulars showing an active desire to cultivate closer relations.

In pursuance to the recommendation of the late Director, in his report presented to the executive committee in February last, the Bureau was represented by an exhibit at the Trans-Mississippi International Exposition at Omaha, Nebraska, which closed on the 31st of October last. A report from the agent of the Bureau at the exposition will be found in the November, 1898, number of the MONTHLY BULLETIN, pages 777-779. This report indicates that the exhibit served its purpose, not only in making more

widely known the usefulness of the Bureau to the people of the United States, but also in attracting attention to the commercial and industrial possibilities of Mexico, the Central and South American Republics, and the West Indies. The late Director also suggested that the Bureau should be represented at the Paris Exposition in 1900, as well as at contemplated expositions in the different countries of the International Union. Inasmuch as my tenure of the directorship is merely provisional, I have not felt warranted in taking any steps to carry out these recommendations, but respectfully submit them for the further consideration of the executive committee.

I inclose herewith a statement of the finances of the Bureau for the fiscal year ended June 30, 1898, and also from the time I took charge, on the 5th of February last, to the 1st instant; also copies of the MONTHLY BULLETIN issued during the past calendar year containing announcements of the successive steps in the work of the Bureau.

It affords me great pleasure to renew for myself the grateful acknowledgments of the late Director to the members of the Executive Committee, and, I may add, to the representatives of all the countries of the International Union, for their valuable cooperation in the conduct of the Bureau's affairs and their cordial support of the efforts to increase its usefulness.

I have the honor to be, gentlemen, your obedient servant,

FREDERIC EMORY,

Director.

RECEIPTS.

July 1, 1897, to June 30, 1898.

Appropriations:		
Annual, 1898	\$28,000.00	
Deficiency, 1898	41,972.00	\$69,972.00
Advertisements		32,051.41
From sales:		
Commercial Directory	16,681.50	
Other publications	5,904.14	
		22,585.64
Total		124,609.05
Expenditures		123,906.27
Balance July 1, 1898		702.78

EXPENDITURES.

July 1, 1897, to June 30, 1898.

	Paid by disbursing clerk, Department of State.		Paid by Director of Bureau* from "receipts from sales, rents, etc."	Total.
	From "appro- priation 1898."	From "re- ceipts from sales, rents, etc."		
Compensation	\$37,999.69	\$8,184.58	\$3,908.16	\$50,092.43
Stationery	6,968.95	964.69	781.00	8,714.64
Rent of office building	1,666.66	833.35		2,500.01
Commissions	5,884.70	5,200.00	13,105.80	24,190.50
Expenses New York office	360.83	553.43	2,065.63	2,979.89
Typewriters	1,086.07			1,086.07
Furniture, repairs, etc.	1,191.65	165.79		1,357.44
Postage stamps	778.00		450.00	1,228.00
Library	89.12	241.61	100.60	431.33
Cablegrams and telegrams	731.62	127.91	96.46	955.99
Printing	7,636.01	11,773.94	1,000.00	20,409.95
Maps	2,714.34		206.25	2,920.59
Telephone	263.96	62.50		326.46
Miscellaneous	2,547.44	2,314.45	1,851.08	6,712.97
Total	69,919.04	30,422.25	23,564.98	123,906.27

*No payments have been made by the Director since February 5, 1898, except upon vouchers drawn upon the disbursing officer of the Department of State against the appropriation or the receipts from sales, rents, etc., which are deposited promptly in the United States Treasury.

February 5, 1898, to June 30, 1898.

	Paid by dis- bursing clerk Department of State, ap- propriation 1898.	Paid by dis- bursing clerk, re- ceipts, etc.	Total.
Compensation	\$19,476.57	\$514.61	\$19,991.18
Stationery	3,666.10	13.69	3,679.79
Rent of office building	666.66	333.34	1,000.00
Commissions on contracts made prior to March 1, 1898		5,200.00	5,200.00
Expenses, New York office	335.83	553.45	889.28
Furniture	555.61		555.61
Library	32.12	145.69	177.81
Cablegrams and telegrams	602.80		602.80
Printing	6,142.38	10,750.26	16,892.64
Maps	2,347.50		2,347.50
Telephone	97.02		97.02
Miscellaneous	1,522.28	1,684.97	3,207.25
Total	35,444.87	19,196.01	54,640.88

Total receipts and expenditures from July 1, 1898, to November 30, 1898.

Annual appropriation, 1899	\$36,000.00	
Expenditures	19,430.79	
Balance December 1, 1898		\$16,569.21
Receipts from sales, rents, etc.:		
Balance July 1, 1898		649.82
From advertisements	\$16,444.70	
From sales:		
Commercial Directory	\$260.00	
Other publications	457.83	
	717.83	
		17,162.53
		17,812.35
Expenditures		16,078.85
Balance December 1, 1898		1,733.50
Value of advertising December 1, 1898		16,500.00
Uncollected bills		8,000.00
Total resources of Bureau December 1, 1898		42,802.71

EXPENDITURES.

July 1, 1898, to November 30, 1898.

	From annual appropriation, 1899.	From receipts from sales, rents, etc.	Total.
Compensation.....	\$14,830.44	\$2,743.54	\$17,573.98
Stationery.....	85.80	52.41	138.21
Rent.....	833.33		833.33
Printing.....	3,279.25	9,456.36	12,735.61
Postage.....	153.17	266.00	419.17
Library.....	36.50	11.25	47.75
Commissions on contracts prior to March 1, 1898.....		2,375.18	2,375.18
Telephone.....	33.75	33.75	67.50
Miscellaneous.....	178.55	1,140.36	1,318.91
Total.....	19,430.79	16,078.85	35,509.64



INFORME ANUAL
DE LA
OFICINA DE LAS REPÚBLICAS AMERICANAS.

MENSAJE DEL PRESIDENTE DE LOS ESTADOS UNIDOS REMITIÉNDOLO AL CONGRESO.—CARTA DEL SECRETARIO DE ESTADO COMPENDIANDO LOS RESULTADOS OBTENIDOS.

RESTABLECIMIENTO DE LAS RELACIONES CON LA REPÚBLICA ARGENTINA.—ENTRADA PROBABLE DE CHILE EN LA UNIÓN.—RECIENTES PROGRESOS HECHOS EN LOS TRABAJOS DE LA OFICINA.

El informe anual del Director de la Oficina de las Repúblicas Americanas para el año de 1898 fué enviado, con los documentos anexos, al Congreso de los Estados Unidos el día 6 de enero, acompañado del siguiente mensaje del Presidente:

Al Senado y Cámara de Diputados:

Os envío una comunicación del Secretario de Estado que contiene el informe anual del Director de la Oficina de las Repúblicas Americanas, con los documentos anexos.

Habiendo mejorado la condición de la Oficina y prestando ésta hoy mayores servicios, según lo manifesté en mi mensaje anual, y en vista de las promesas de que las otras Repúblicas americanas se interesarán más en su mantenimiento, doy mi sincera aprobación á las recomendaciones del Secretario de Estado. Seguro estoy de que será tan grata para el Congreso, como lo ha sido para mí, la noticia de que la República Argentina se ha resuelto á restablecer

sus relaciones con la Oficina, y de que hay esperanzas de que la Unión Internacional Americana, creada por la notable conferencia de los representantes de nuestras repúblicas hermanas y de los Estados Unidos, que celebró sus sesiones en Wáshington en 1889-90, llegue á ser completa mediante la adhesión de la República de Chile al pacto que se firmó para el mantenimiento de la Oficina como órgano de la Unión. Los intereses de los Estados Unidos en llevar á efecto los laudables deseos de la Conferencia Internacional en cuanto á promover no solamente el tráfico sino más estrechas relaciones de amistad entre las repúblicas de este hemisferio, son tan palpables, que no dudo que la Oficina contará con las simpatías y el apoyo del Congreso en su carácter de agencia práctica para la realización de los objetos mencionados.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

MANSIÓN DEL EJECUTIVO,

Wáshington, 6 de enero de 1899.

CARTA DEL SECRETARIO DE ESTADO.

Señor PRESIDENTE :

Tengo la honra de remitiros el informe anual del Director de la Oficina de las Repúblicas Americanas, que versa principalmente sobre la administración provisional de la Oficina desde la muerte del último Director, Mr. JOSEPH P. SMITH, acaecida el 5 de febrero de 1898. El informe fué leído y aprobado el 17 del corriente en una reunión de la Comisión Ejecutiva de la Unión Internacional de Repúblicas Americanas. Se observará que los esfuerzos del Director provisional, que es un empleado del Departamento de Estado, designado en el mes de febrero próximo pasado, con la aprobación de la Comisión Ejecutiva, para que se hiciese cargo de la Oficina, se han dirigido principalmente á la realización de los importantes proyectos de su predecesor, así como á hacer frente á las dificultades económicas, producidas en su mayor parte por

operaciones mercantiles á que dió lugar un contrato celebrado por la Comisión Ejecutiva en noviembre de 1896, á fin de obtener anuncios para el *BOLETÍN MENSUAL*; habiendo sido también objeto de esos esfuerzos el acallar la oposición de algunas empresas periódicas y otras á la competencia que les hacía una Oficina sostenida en parte con sumas votadas por el Congreso de los Estados Unidos, satisfaciendo al mismo tiempo los deseos de la Comisión Ejecutiva de obtener fondos para mantener la Oficina y aumentar debidamente sus operaciones.

Me es satisfactorio poder asegurar que la administración provisional ha obtenido los fines indicados y que la Oficina parece haber entrado en una vía de desarrollo que promete la gradual realización de los propósitos de la Conferencia Internacional Americana de 1889-90, que la creó como una agencia para promover las relaciones amistosas y el tráfico entre las varias repúblicas del hemisferio occidental. Los esfuerzos de la Oficina en lo pasado, según se indicó en el informe anual del Director para 1897, han sido necesariamente de carácter más ó menos experimental, debido al hecho de que el plan trazado por la Conferencia Internacional era nuevo, tanto en su concepción como en su alcance, y para llevarlo á efecto había que resolver muchos problemas complicados. Es de esperar que estemos ya pisando sobre terreno firme, y nos induce á abrigar esta esperanza no sólo la condición actual de la Oficina y lo que promete para el porvenir, sino el hecho de que los otros miembros de la Unión le dan su apoyo cordial y decidido.

Por el informe del Director se ve que la solicitud últimamente hecha á los países latino-americanas de que pagasen sus cuotas anuales para el sostenimiento de la Oficina, ha dado por resultado que cinco de ellos han pagado una cantidad mayor que toda la suma recibida durante el año económico anterior. También se observará que algunos de los miembros de la Unión Internacional, que por algunos años habían dejado de figurar en ella, manifiestan

ahora deseos de reasumir sus pasadas relaciones con la Oficina y de volver á contribuir con sus cuotas para el mantenimiento de la misma. Uno de los países en referencia es la República Argentina, que acaba de comunicar oficialmente su intención de obrar de la manera indicada. El Director llama asimismo la atención al interés que manifiesta el Ministro de Chile en los Estados Unidos respecto de la Oficina, lo cual justifica la esperanza de que aquella República, que fué el único de los países que tomaron participación en la conferencia Internacional Americana que no entró en la Unión, se resolverá á entrar en ella, completando así la unión de las Repúblicas Americanas, destinada á hacer más estrechos los lazos que las ligan para beneficio de todas.

En el momento en que la atención de todos se dirige con más interés que nunca á los mercados que en otras tierras se ofrecen á la industria y al comercio de los Estados Unidos, es de la mayor importancia que aprovechemos las numerosas muestras de amistad que nos dan nuestros vecinos del sur con el fin de establecer un cambio de productos y de ayudarnos mutuamente; y si tomamos en consideración los muchos puntos en que las aspiraciones é intereses de las repúblicas latino-americanas están de acuerdo con los que nos son más caros, es evidente que cada paso que tienda á identificarnos en simpatías y propósitos debe contribuir notablemente al desarrollo económico y social, tanto de nuestras repúblicas hermanas como de nosotros mismos. Desde el punto de vista de los servicios que en este sentido puede prestar la Oficina de las Repúblicas Americanas, el incremento que se dé á sus trabajos, de acuerdo con las miras de los representantes de los otros países que figuran en la Unión Internacional, debe, á mi juicio, ser motivo de congratulaciones, y me permito indicar que se llame la atención del Congreso al hecho de que se están haciendo esfuerzos para economizar y aumentar los recursos de la Oficina, en orden á que pueda ser de mayor utilidad con el menor costo posible al tesoro público.

A solicitud mía, el Ministro de Hacienda ha enviado al Congreso un cálculo de los gastos de la Oficina para el próximo año económico, así como un proyecto de ley para que se permita á dicha Oficina hacer uso de las cantidades que se reciban de los otros países durante el presente año económico. Las razones que se tuvieron en mira al formular este proyecto de ley están expuestas en las comunicaciones del Director de la Oficina, que acompañan á las que el Ministro de Hacienda ha dirigido á la Cámara de Diputados, y espero que el Congreso las estimará justificadas por las necesidades del caso.

Tengo la honra de apoyar la recomendación del Director de que se pida autorización al Congreso para imprimir 2,500 ejemplares del informe anual, á fin de que la Oficina pueda distribuirlos para satisfacer las solicitudes que se reciben pidiendo informes acerca de su condición actual y de sus planes para lo futuro.

Quedo del Señor Presidente atento y seguro servidor,

JOHN HAY.

DEPARTAMENTO DE ESTADO,

Washington, 30 de diciembre de 1898.

CARTA DEL DIRECTOR.

OFICINA DE LAS REPÚBLICAS AMERICANAS,

Washington, D. C., 21 de diciembre de 1898.

SEÑOR: De conformidad con las instrucciones que me fueron dadas por la Comisión Ejecutiva de la Unión Internacional de Repúblicas Americanas en la sesión del 17 del corriente, tengo la honra de suplicaros que el informe que acompaña á la presente, y que versa sobre los trabajos de la Oficina de las Repúblicas Americanas durante el año pasado, junto con un corto resumen de las deliberaciones y acuerdos de la Comisión Ejecutiva en dicha sesión, sea sometido al Señor Presidente á fin de que se sirva remitirlo al Congreso de los Estados Unidos.

Además de la noticia, contenida en el informe, de que es

posible que la República de Chile dé por primera vez su apoyo á la Oficina, me es grato manifestar que acabo de ser informado oficialmente de que la República Argentina, que desde 1891 no había contribuido al mantenimiento de la Oficina, ha resuelto tomar las medidas necesarias á fin de reanudar sus antiguas relaciones. Este feliz resultado se debe especialmente al Doctor Don MARTÍN GARCÍA MÉROU, Ministro de la República Argentina en Wáshington, quien se ha empeñado en hacer comprender á su Gobierno la importancia creciente de la Oficina. A fin de poder contestar las preguntas que de muchas partes se me dirigen respecto de la condición y propósitos de la Oficina, me permito recomendaros que se pida al Congreso autorización para imprimir una edición de 2,500 ejemplares del informe anual, á fin de que puedan ser distribuidos por la Oficina.

Soy del Señor Secretario de Estado muy atento y seguro servidor.

FREDERIC EMORY,

Director.

Al Señor SECRETARIO DE ESTADO.

ACTA DE LA SESIÓN DE LA COMISIÓN EJECUTIVA DE LA
UNIÓN INTERNACIONAL DE REPÚBLICAS AMERICANAS,
QUE SE VERIFICÓ EL SÁBADO, 17 DE DICIEMBRE DE 1898.

WÁSHINGTON, D. C., 17 de diciembre de 1898.

La Comisión Ejecutiva de la Unión Internacional de Repúblicas Americanas se reunió en el salón de recepciones del Departamento de Estado el sábado, 17 de diciembre de 1898, á las 11 de la mañana.

Presidió la reunión el Honorable JOHN HAY, Secretario de Estado, como Presidente de la Comisión.

Los otros miembros que estuvieron presentes fueron:

El Señor Dr. Don MARTÍN GARCÍA MÉROU, Ministro de la República Argentina.

El Señor Don JOAQUÍN BERNARDO CALVO, Ministro de Costa Rica.

El Señor Don MANUEL M. PONTE, Encargado de Negocios de Venezuela.

El Director de la Oficina de las Repúblicas Americanas, Mr. EMORY, también estuvo presente.

Habiendo manifestado la Comisión que estaba lista para oír el informe anual del Director de la Oficina, éste lo leyó, después de lo cual explicó los puntos principales relativos á la cuestión económica, y lo hizo como sigue :

En la primera página se dan las entradas y salidas durante el año económico que terminó el 30 de junio de 1898. El 5 de febrero de 1898 me hice cargo de la Oficina, y el cuadro detallado que aparece en la próxima página muestra cómo se gastó el dinero durante el restó del año económico. En la página tercera aparece un cuadro de las entradas y salidas desde el 1° de julio de 1898 hasta el 30 de noviembre del mismo año, y es importante dicho cuadro porque muestra la actual condición de la Oficina y sus recursos. La suma fijada para los gastos anuales fué de \$36,000, y aquellos ascendieron á \$19,430.79, quedando así el 1° de diciembre de 1898 un saldo de \$16,569.21. Las entradas por anuncios y ventas del Directorio Comercial y otras publicaciones, arrojaron un total durante este período, desde el 1° de julio hasta el 30 de noviembre, de \$17,812.35, y los gastos subieron á \$16,078.85, dejando un saldo de \$1,733.50. A esta suma he agregado el valor de los anuncios hasta el 1° de diciembre de 1898, \$16,500, y el de cuentas no colectadas, \$8,000, lo cual arroja un total á favor de la Oficina de \$42,802.71 el 1° de diciembre de 1898. En el cuadro número cuatro se exponen minuciosamente los gastos hechos por mí desde el 1° de julio hasta el 1° de diciembre, y allí aparece una partida de lo que se debía por comisiones según contrato antes del 1° de marzo de 1898, lo cual quiere decir que esas sumas se adeudaban cuando aun no estaba á mi cargo la

Oficina, y he estado pagándolas del mejor modo que me ha sido posible.

El Ministro de la República Argentina, Señor MÉROU, dijo: Encontramos muy satisfactorio el informe de Mr. EMORY y podemos aprobarlo en su totalidad. Es muy grata la noticia de que el Gobierno de Chile puede entrar en la Unión con los otros países latino-americanos, haciéndola así completa. Creo que quizá convendría hacer constar en el acta una manifestación del placer que la Comisión siente con este motivo.

El Ministro de Costa Rica, Señor CALVO, dijo: Me adhiero en absoluto á la moción del Señor Ministro de la República Argentina, y espero que se autorizará al Director para que exprese al Señor Ministro de Chile los sinceros deseos que tiene la Comisión de que la República de Chile entre á formar parte de la Unión.

El Señor PRESIDENTE dijo: De acuerdo con los deseos de la Comisión, el Director se servirá comunicar al Ministro de Chile que la posibilidad de que su país entre á formar parte de la Unión es motivo de complacencia para la Comisión.

Después de esto, se aprobó el informe y se dieron instrucciones al Director para que tomase las medidas de contumbre á fin de que dicho documento fuese enviado al Congreso de los Estados Unidos.

Se levantó la sesión.

INFORME ANUAL

OFICINA DE LAS REPÚBLICAS AMERICANAS,

Washington, 17 de diciembre de 1898.

Al Señor Secretario de Estado, Presidente de la Comisión Ejecutiva de la Unión Internacional de Repúblicas Americanas, y á los otros Miembros de dicha Comisión.

SEÑORES: Tengo la honra de someter á vuestra consideración el informe relativo á los trabajos de la Oficina de las Repúblicas Ame-

ricanas desde que fuí designado para hacerme cargo de ella con motivo de la muerte del último Director, Mr. JOSEPH P. SMITH, acaecida el 5 de febrero de 1898. La prematura muerte de Mr. SMITH, que había estado de Director menos de un año, privó á la Oficina de susservicios, y puso término á la ejecución de sus proyectos, en parte realizados, y que tendían á hacer de más alcance y utilidad práctica los trabajos que la Conferencia Internacional Americana tuvo en mira cuando creó la Oficina en 1890. Lo que Mr. SMITH se proponía está explicado con toda claridad en el informe anual que fué preparado según sus instrucciones, pero que él no tuvo tiempo de aprobar, informe que yo presenté á la Comisión el 28 de febrero próximo pasado, por razón de que, según lo manifesté en mi comunicación de aquella fecha, contenia en sustancia sus ideas. Este informe contiene un resumen cuidadosamente preparado sobre los trabajos de la Oficina hasta la época en que fuí nombrado por el Secretario de Estado, y con la aprobación de la Comisión Ejecutiva, Director interino.

Por orden del Congreso de los Estados Unidos, el informe ha sido impreso, y es inútil, por tanto, que yo repita las conclusiones á que llega aquel documento. Me es satisfactorio, sin embargo, poder asegurar que, en cuanto me ha sido posible, bajo las condiciones en que encontré la Oficina, he podido realizar los planes á que el finado Director daba mayor importancia. Entre estos proyectos, figuraba la terminación del Directorio Comercial de las Repúblicas Americanas, obra en dos tomos, y que contiene 2,643 páginas de bien escogida materia descriptiva y estadística, en las que se exponen las riquezas naturales, industrias, comercio y leyes que afectan la agricultura y el tráfico en todos los países del hemisferio occidental, y se dan listas de comerciantes é industriales á quienes se supone especialmente interesados en el desarrollo de las relaciones comerciales entre las diferentes naciones. El segundo tomo, que contiene 1,589 páginas, fué terminado en noviembre de 1898, y se dió principio á la distribución de ejem-

plares el 24 del mismo mes, ó sea cosa de un año después de la publicación del tomo primero. Esta obra, que fué proyectada en su totalidad por el finado Director, se considera como única, tanto por su alcance, como por la exactitud de los informes que contiene, y se cree que llegará á ser de gran valor práctico á las casas de comercio que se dedican ó están para dedicarse al tráfico con la América latina, al mismo tiempo que servirá como obra de consulta á todos los que buscan informes relativos al desarrollo industrial y comercial de las Repúblicas americanas y de las colonias europeas en el mar de las Antillas y en otros puntos de este hemisferio. La Oficina está especialmente agradecida á la Asociación Nacional de Manufactureros y al Museo Comercial de Filadelfia por las importantes indicaciones que le han hecho y por la ayuda que le han prestado en la compilación de listas de casas de comercio para aquella parte del segundo tomo del Directorio Comercial dedicada á los Estados Unidos.

Otro de los objetos que el finado Director se proponía especialmente alcanzar, según se ve por su informe anual, era que la Oficina se recomendase por sí misma á las casas de comercio de las Repúblicas americanas como un agencia importante para remover los obstáculos que se oponen al establecimiento de relaciones mercantiles más estrechas con los Estados Unidos, así como para abrir nuevos mercados al tráfico. Me causa placer poder asegurar que se han hecho progresos en este sentido, y que puedo repetir con énfasis estas palabras del finado Director en su informe anual para 1897: "La Oficina debe gran parte de su reciente desarrollo á la activa participación y á la vigilancia de los representantes en Wáshington de las varias repúblicas interesadas en ella." Al terminar el año de 1898, la Oficina se encuentra en una posición muy halagadora, pues cuenta con el apoyo unánime y cordial de los representantes diplomáticos de todos los países que componen la Unión, y abriga la esperanza de que las Repúblicas latino-americanas continuarán manifestando cada día creciente

interés en sus trabajos. Estas esperanzas se justifican con las numerosas manifestaciones de aprecio y simpatía existentes en los archivos de la Oficina. Un incidente muy grato, y que vino á corroborar esta manera de ver las cosas, fué la reciente visita que hizo á la Oficina el Señor Presidente de Costa Rica, quien, después de haber examinado los trabajos de la misma, manifestó que merecían su aprobación y que era su propósito contribuir, en cuanto le fuese posible, al desarrollo de dicha Oficina.

La Oficina siente también especial agradecimiento hacia el Señor ROMERO, Ministro de México, que formó parte de la Comisión Ejecutiva, y que al separarse de ella en el mes de junio próximo pasado, de conformidad con la disposición que prescribe que cada año cese en sus funciones uno de los miembros de dicho cuerpo, continuó siempre manifestando el mayor interés en los asuntos de la Unión Internacional. Asimismo está muy reconocida la Oficina al ex-Ministro del Brasil en los Estados Unidos, Señor MENDONÇA, quien desde que ella fué organizada, la favoreció con sus indicaciones y con su apoyo más decidido. El Señor Don CARLOS MORLA VICUÑA, últimamente nombrado Ministro de Chile en los Estados Unidos, ha honrado á la Oficina con manifestaciones que prueban el interés que toma en sus trabajos. Esto hace esperar que el Gobierno chileno, que, á pesar de haber estado representado en la Conferencia Internacional Americana que creó la Oficina, jamás ha querido hacer uso de su derecho de entrar en la Unión, se decidirá en día no lejano á prestar á la Oficina su eficaz apoyo.

Según tuve la honra de informar á la Comisión en la sesión del 28 de febrero de 1898, encontré los negocios de la Oficina en algún desorden cuando me hice cargo de ella, lo cual fué resultado de la larga enfermedad del último Director. La situación económica no era satisfactoria, debido á un contrato que había celebrado, con autorización de la Comisión, el predecesor del último Director, en noviembre de 1896. El fin que la Comisión se propuso al

aprobar este convenio, fué obtener fondos para la Oficina por medio de anuncios en el BOLETÍN MENSUAL de la misma, en orden á hacer frente á los gastos ocasionados por esta publicación, mejorarla y aumentar su circulación, teniendo en mira dar á conocer á los diferentes países los recursos, industrias y comercio de cada uno. De conformidad con el contrato, la persona encargada de solicitar anuncios debía recibir por su comisión el 40 por ciento del valor de los que obtuviese. Como base para el buen éxito de esta operación, se hizo imprimir durante algunos meses una edición del BOLETÍN MENSUAL con un costo de \$9,000 cada mes, ó sean \$108,000 al año. La entrada total producida anualmente por los avisos fué calculada en \$60,000, pero de esta suma había que sacar el 40 por ciento para el pago de la comisión, lo cual dejaba reducida aquélla á \$36,000.

Como el pago de las comisiones se hacía inmediatamente, y era preciso esperar para el reembolso la recolección del valor de los avisos, era evidente que, aunque la supuesta entrada hubiera sido suficiente, se necesitaba disponer de considerable capital para hacer frente á aquellos desembolsos. La cantidad fijada para los gastos de la Oficina no era más que de \$28,000, y el aumento de sus trabajos hacía indispensable que se empleara considerable número de personas, además de las que ya estaban en servicio. El Congreso de los Estados Unidos votó, en enero de 1898, la cantidad de \$41,972 para cubrir el déficit. En esa fecha la Oficina estaba atrasada en el pago de los sueldos y de numerosas reclamaciones procedentes de sus operaciones económicas, así como del aumento en los trabajos ocasionado por la necesidad de compilar, traducir, copiar con la máquina de escribir, etc., los datos requeridos para varias publicaciones. Era claro que el saldo que quedara de la suma votada para cubrir el déficit apenas podía bastar para estos gastos y para llevar á buen término los trabajos comenzados.

En estas circunstancias, indiqué á la Comisión Ejecutiva la conveniencia de poner fin al contrato para solicitar anuncios

mediante el pago de una agencia con este fin, máxime en vista de las quejas procedentes de varias partes contra la competencia que los agentes de una Oficina, sostenida en parte por el Gobierno de los Estados Unidos, hacían á empresas particulares que se dedicaban al negocio de los anuncios. Por otra parte, parecía posible llevar á cabo el pensamiento de la Comisión Ejecutiva relativo á obtener una entrada para hacer frente á los gastos del BOLETÍN MENSUAL, con seguir ofreciendo sus columnas á los comerciantes é industriales, como un medio para dar á conocer sus efectos en los mercados adonde deseen enviarlos, y esto sin la mediación de personas que especulan, más ó menos, en esta clase de negocios, y sin hacer indebida competencia á empresas particulares. La Comisión Ejecutiva aceptó mis indicaciones, y me nombró Director de la Oficina por un período que no debía pasar del fin del año económico en curso, esto es, del 30 de junio de 1898, y me dió amplia autorización para reorganizar la Oficina, cancelar los contratos celebrados con el fin de solicitar anuncios ó suscripciones, ú otros que me pareciesen nocivos á los intereses de la Oficina, “teniendo siempre en mira los intereses generales de la Unión Internacional y los deseos de la Comisión.”

Con esta autorización, dí inmediatamente aviso de estar terminado el contrato para solicitar anuncios, y procedí á reorganizar la Oficina, de modo á conciliar sus asuntos comerciales, que estimaba valiosos, con las limitaciones impuestas por su carácter oficial y con los medios de que se podía disponer.

El 21 de mayo de 1898 tuve la satisfacción de poner en conocimiento de la Comisión que las medidas económicas adoptadas habían dado por resultado una reducción en cosa de \$5,000 mensuales de los gastos que se hacían cuando tomé á mi cargo la Oficina, y asimismo le manifesté que abrigaba la esperanza de que los fondos que había disponibles fuesen suficientes para llevar adelante los trabajos hasta la conclusión del año económico, el día 30 de junio de 1898. Mis esperanzas se realizaron, y al fin del citado

año quedaba un saldo de \$702.78. Las recomendaciones que hice á la Comisión Ejecutiva en el informe que presenté en la sesión del 21 de mayo, fueron aceptadas.

El 25 de junio de 1898 se verificó otra sesión de la Comisión Ejecutiva, y en ella manifesté que se acercaba el día 30 de junio, fecha fijada para la expiración de mi período como Director provisional. Creyendo la Comisión que no era oportuno, bajo las condiciones entonces existentes, el nombramiento de un Director permanente, resolvió prolongar mi período como Director provisional hasta el 1° de octubre, y de nuevo me confirió los poderes especiales que me había dado el 28 de febrero. En las sesiones de la Comisión Ejecutiva del 17 de setiembre y del 26 de octubre de 1898, fué prolongado nuevamente el citado período.

En esta última sesión se resolvió que la administración provisional de la Oficina continuara con carácter indefinido, á fin de que la Comisión no se viese obligada á emitir otra resolución sobre el particular, antes de que se hubiesen realizado los proyectos que están en vía de ejecución para el desarrollo de los trabajos sobre bases más económicas.

Los esfuerzos de la dirección provisional han sido dedicados necesariamente, en proporción considerable, á los trabajos de reorganización, á completar los planes del anterior Director, al pago de deudas, y al arreglo de un gran número de cuestiones consecuentes al cambio de método en la conducción de los asuntos de la Oficina. Se consideró conveniente no sólo arreglar los asuntos de la Oficina, sino demostrar también la practicabilidad de aumentar su esfera de acción obteniendo al efecto mayores ingresos por concepto de anuncios y venta de publicaciones, evitando de esta suerte la necesidad de acudir otra vez al Congreso de los Estados Unidos en solicitud de un presupuesto adicional. Abriábase la esperanza de poder obtener este resultado sin afectar indebidamente los derechos de las personas ocupadas en la publicación de anuncios ó de las casas editoriales. El método empleado

para la obtención de anuncios dentro de estos límites está ampliamente explicado en el aviso que se publica en el BOLETÍN MENSUAL desde el 5 de febrero último. Los resultados abonan la esperanza de que la Oficina recibirá el apoyo pecuniario de las casas de comercio de importancia que tienen marcado interés en el desarrollo de las relaciones comerciales entre las varias Repúblicas americanas, y justifican asimismo la esperanza de que en no lejano día el BOLETÍN pueda sostenerse por sí mismo sin necesidad de agencia en comisión y el consiguiente anticipo de dinero á cargo de los ingresos por concepto de anuncios.

Los contratos de anuncios han sido renovados en cantidad de \$4,961 y se han hecho nuevos contratos por \$1,018. Estos resultados, aunque pequeños en proporción al importe bruto obtenido bajo el sistema anterior, son sustancialmente alentadores por cuanto han sido obtenidos sin indebida solicitud y dejarán en beneficio de la Oficina una utilidad igual á su importè. No abrigo duda alguna de que la continuación de la conducta actual respecto á los anuncios dará por resultado, dentro de un período relativamente corto, un aumento en la circulación del BOLETÍN, un gran adelanto en el carácter de las materias contenidas en el mismo, y el mantenimiento de esta publicación independientemente de la cantidad presupuesta por el gobierno. La distribución gratuita del BOLETÍN en los Estados Unidos ha ocasionado gastos que, á mi juicio, no estaban justificados por los recursos de la Oficina, y la circulación libre está limitada ahora á los periódicos, cámaras de comercio, bibliotecas, funcionarios del gobierno y personas que soliciten informes específicos. En las actuales condiciones he encontrado justificable pedir al Congreso de los Estados Unidos que disponga la publicación de 5,000 números mensuales para el año económico próximo que termina al 30 de junio de 1900, con el objeto de distribuirlos en este país como medio de propagar un conocimiento mejor de las fuentes de riqueza y posibilidades comerciales de las Repúblicas latino-americanas.

Una edición de 8,000 números es distribuida en México, Centro América, Sud América y las Antillas; y el costo de esta edición, así como el de los números que ahora se están distribuyendo en los Estados Unidos, puede sufragarse á mi juicio con los ingresos probables por concepto de anuncios.

Además de la publicación del *BOLETÍN*, los trabajos de la Oficina comprenden la compilación é impresión, de cuando en cuando, de manuales sobre los diversos países latino-americanos. Cuatro de estos manuales han sido terminados, y sólo espero contar con los medios de sufragar su costo de impresión y distribución para darles publicidad. El anterior Director llamó la atención en su informe hacia el hecho de que los presupuestos para el sostenimiento de la Oficina no han sido nunca suficientes á sufragar los gastos de impresión de varios trabajos cuya publicación debía llevarse á cabo dentro de los límites de la esfera de acción de la Oficina, tal como fué ideada por la Conferencia Internacional, especialmente por cuanto todos estos documentos deben imprimirse en el idioma del país á que se refieren, de igual suerte que en inglés. Sobre este punto el anterior Director se expresó en los siguientes términos:

Si se practica un examen de investigación, se verá que los anteriores Directores de la Oficina se vieron obligados á acudir á varios expedientes para llevar á cabo la impresión de los trabajos que han sido publicados de cuando en cuando. Habría sido imposible hacerlo con los fondos que tenían á su disposición. Sólo pudo hacerse por virtud de la autorización que se obtuvo del Congreso de los Estados Unidos para imprimir los varios manuales y otras publicaciones, como documentos del Congreso, á cargo del fondo general para impresos.

Como medio de vencer esta dificultad, en parte al menos, el anterior Director sugirió la idea á los representantes de los países que componen la Unión Internacional, de que se tomaran "medidas al objeto de obtener para la Oficina el uso de las cantidades con que contribuyen las otras Repúblicas, cuyos importes se pagan actualmente en la Tesorería de los Estados Unidos, para reembolsar á ésta por el anticipo de las diferentes cuotas de aquellos países." Se calculó que esta medida daría un ingreso á la Oficina de unos

\$45,000 ó \$50,000. Yo he dado pasos para llevar á la práctica esta sugestión, y se ha pedido al Congreso de los Estados Unidos la autorización de este proyecto. Se han dirigido comunicaciones á los gobiernos de los otros países de la Unión Internacional preguntándoles si se les ofrece objeción alguna respecto del cambio propuesto, y cuatro de ellos han contestado ya manifestando su aquiescencia. Las cantidades que se han recibido de los otros países han variado de año á año, pero tengo el placer de consignar que hay fundamentos sustanciales para esperar que las cuotas de este año excedan con mucho al promedio anual. La Oficina ha sido informado del pronto pago de las cuotas correspondientes á cinco de aquellos países, cuyo total asciende á \$5,027.78. Uno de ellos, Venezuela, ha pagado la cantidad de \$540.41 en exceso durante el año económico terminado el 30 de junio de 1898. Aquella cantidad excede al total de importes recibidos de los otros países de la Unión en el año económico anterior, que fué de \$4,216.02

Además de sus varias publicaciones, la Oficina se ocupa activamente en suministrar informes, ya verbalmente, ya por escrito, á los que los solicitan, no sólo en los Estados Unidos, sino también en muchas otras partes del mundo, especialmente en los países de la Unión Internacional Americana. Este ramo de los trabajos de la Oficina ha alcanzado tales proporciones, que el anterior Director hubo de establecer una sección de información con el objeto especial de dar contestación á las solicitudes de informes. Estas han continuado aumentando en número, y la Oficina recibe con frecuencia cartas de los otros países de la Unión, en las cuales se solicita su auxilio al objeto de obtener informes en asuntos comerciales, ó de interesar el capital americano en empresas mineras, industriales ó comerciales en los diversos países. Muchas de las cartas se refieren en términos laudatorios al BOLETÍN MENSUAL de la Oficina, hecho que indica que esta publicación se está distribuyendo con resultados satisfactorios en los países latino-americanos y que se está dando á conocer como medio práctico de fomentar el comercio. La Oficina responde á las solicitudes

de los iniciadores de empresas especiales en busca de capital americano, llamando solamente la atención á tales empresas en las páginas del *BOLETÍN*, después de convencerse, tras cuidadosa investigación, de que propiamente puede darse publicidad á tales proyectos. En los casos en que la Oficina no puede prestar ayuda alguna, se sugiere á los solicitantes que acudan á las corporaciones comerciales de los Estados Unidos que estén comprendidas más específicamente dentro del campo de acción que interesa al solicitante.

Las preguntas que generalmente se hacen, se refieren á las fuentes especiales agrícolas y mineras de los varios países; á la manera de obtener tierras para el cultivo, para la cría de ganado, y para la minería; los métodos empleados para la fabricación de azúcar y producción de café, cacao, goma elástica, frutas tropicales, etc., y las medidas que se han de tomar para adquirir tierras, ya sea para la aplicación de la actividad privada ó para llevar á cabo empresas en una escala más comprensiva. Con frecuencia se piden informes acerca de los derechos impuestos en las aranceles de los diversos países sobre artículos ó clases especiales de mercancías, derechos de entrada y ordenanzas de puertos, estadísticas de exportación é importación, condiciones impuestas por las leyes de un país respecto á las industrias y al comercio, nombres de los funcionarios del gobierno á quien hay que dirigirse en asuntos especiales, etc. De los países latino-americanos vienen, en número creciente, solicitudes de informes sobre los mercados de los Estados Unidos con relación á ciertos productos de aquellos países y á las clases de artículos que se producen ó fabrican en los Estados Unidos, que pudieran tomarse en cambio, los nombres de los importadores y exportadores interesados en el comercio latino-americano, y otros particulares que acusan un grande deseo de cultivar relaciones más estrechas.

En cumplimiento de la recomendación hecha por el anterior Director en su informe á la Comisión Ejecutiva en febrero último, la Oficina fué representada—exhibiendo al efecto sus trabajos—en la

Exposición Internacional Transmisipiana de Omaha, Nebraska, la cual se cerró el 31 de octubre último. En el *BOLETÍN* de noviembre de 1898, páginas 777-779, se encontrará un informe presentado por el agente de la Oficina en aquella Exposición. En este informe se indica que la exhibición hecha por la Oficina vino á llenar un objeto útil, no sólo haciendo conocer más extensamente al pueblo de los Estados Unidos la utilidad de la Oficina, sino también atrayendo la atención hacia las posibilidades comerciales é industriales de México, Centro y Sud América, y las Indias Occidentales. El anterior Director sugirió también la idea de que la Oficina fuese representada en la Exposición de París de 1900, así como en las exposiciones que hayan de celebrarse en los distintos países de la Unión Internacional. Como mi cargo de Director es meramente provisional, no he encontrado justificable el tomar medidas para llevar á cabo estas recomendaciones, pero las someto respetuosamente á la consideración de la Comisión Ejecutiva.

Acompaño un informe sobre la situación económica de la Oficina durante el año económico que terminó el 30 de junio de 1898, y que comprende también el período transcurrido desde la fecha en que me hice cargo de la Oficina, en 5 de febrero último hasta el 1 del corriente; acompaño también los números del *BOLLETIN MENSUAL* publicados durante el pasado año económico, en los cuales se da cuenta sucesivamente de los trabajos realizados por la Oficina.

Es objeto de gran placer para mí reiterar en mi propio nombre las expresiones de reconocimiento que el anterior Director hizo presente á la Comisión Ejecutiva, y que yo extendiendo á los representantes de todos los países de la Unión Internacional por su valiosa cooperación en el manejo de los trabajos de la Oficina y su cordial apoyo de los fueros hechos para aumentar su utilidad.

Tengo la honra de ser vuestro atento servidor,

FREDERIC EMORY,

Director.

44 INFORME ANUAL DE LA OFICINA DE LAS REPÚBLICAS AMERICANAS.

INGRESOS

Del 1º de julio de 1897 al 30 de junio de 1898.

Presupuesto:

Anual, 1898	\$28,000.00	
Adicional, 1898	41,972.00	\$69,972.00
Anuncios		32,051.41
Por concepto de ventas:		
Directorio Comercial	16,681.50	
Otras publicaciones	5,904.14	22,585.64
Total		124,609.05
Gastos		123,906.27
Balance el 1º de julio 1 de 1898		702.78

GASTOS

Del 1º de julio de 1897 al 30 de junio de 1898.

	Pagado por el Oficial pagador del Departamento de Estado.		Pagado por el Director de la Oficina* del fondo de los productos de ventas, rentas, etc.	Total.
	Del presupuesto de 1899.	De los ingresos por concepto de ventas, rentas, etc.		
Sueldos	\$37,999.69	\$8,184.58	\$3,908.16	\$50,092.43
Artículos de escribir	6,968.95	964.69	781.00	8,714.64
Alquiler de la Oficina	1,666.66	833.35		2,500.01
Comisiones	5,884.70	5,200.00	13,105.80	24,190.50
Gastos de la Oficina de Nueva York	360.83	553.43	2,065.63	2,979.89
Máquinas de Escribir	1,086.07			1,086.07
Muebles, reparaciones, etc.	1,191.65	165.79		1,357.44
Sellos de correo	778.00		450.00	1,228.00
Biblioteca	89.12	241.61	100.60	431.33
Cablegramas y telegramas	731.62	127.91	96.46	955.99
Impresión	7,636.01	11,773.94	1,000.00	20,409.95
Mapas	2,714.34		206.25	2,920.59
Teléfono	263.96	62.50		326.46
Otros	2,547.44	2,314.45	1,851.08	6,712.97
Total	69,919.04	30,422.25	23,564.98	123,906.27

* No se ha hecho pago alguno por el Director desde 5 de febrero de 1898, con excepción de los recibos expedidos contra el oficial pagador del Departamento de Estado, para su pago de los fondos del presupuesto, ó de los ingresos por concepto de ventas, rentas, etc., que se depositan inmediatamente en la tesorería de los Estados Unidos.

INFORME ANUAL DE LA OFICINA DE LAS REPÚBLICAS AMERICANAS. 45

Del 5 de febrero de 1898 al 30 de junio de 1898.

	Pagado por el oficial paga- dor del Departamento de Estado, presupuesto de 1898.	Pagado por el oficial paga- dor, ingresos, etc.	Total.
Sueldos	\$19, 476. 57	\$514. 61	\$19, 991. 18
Artículos de escribir	3, 666. 10	13. 69	3, 679. 79
Alquiler de oficina	666. 66	333. 34	1, 000. 00
Comisiones por contratos hechos con anterio- ridad al 1 de marzo de 1898		5, 200. 00	5, 200. 00
Gastos de la oficina de Nueva York	335. 83	553. 45	889. 28
Muebles	555. 61		555. 61
Biblioteca	32. 12	145. 69	177. 81
Cablegramas y telegramas	602. 80		602. 80
Impresión	6, 142. 38	10, 750. 26	16, 892. 64
Mapas	2, 347. 50		2, 347. 50
Teléfono	97. 02		97. 02
Otros	1, 522. 28	1, 684. 97	3, 207. 25
Total.....	35, 444. 87	19, 196. 01	54, 640. 88

Total de ingresos y gastos del 1° de julio de 1898 al 30 de noviembre de 1898.

Presupuesto anual, 1899.....	\$36, 000. 00	
Gastos.....	19, 430. 79	
Balance, 1° de diciembre de 1898		\$16, 569. 21
Ingresos por concepto de ventas, rentas, etc.:		
Balance, 1° de julio de 1898	649. 82	
Por concepto de anuncios.....	\$16, 444. 70	
Por ventas:		
Directorio Comercial	\$260. 00	
Otras publicaciones.....	457. 83	
	<u>717. 83</u>	
		17, 162. 53
		<u>17, 812. 35</u>
Gastos		16, 078. 85
Balance, 1° de diciembre de 1898		1, 733. 50
Valor de los anuncios, 1° de diciembre de 1898.....		16, 500. 00
Cuentas no cobradas.....		8, 000. 00
Total de ingresos de la Oficina, 1° de diciembre de 1898.....		42, 802. 71

46 INFORME ANUAL DE LA OFICINA DE LAS REPÚBLICAS AMERICANAS.

GASTOS.

Del 1º de julio de 1898 al 30 de noviembre de 1898.

	Del presu- puesto anu- al de 1899.	De los ingre- sos por ven- tas, rentas, etc.	Total.
Sueldos	\$14, 830. 44	\$2, 743. 54	\$17, 573. 98
Artículos de escribir	85. 80	52. 41	138. 21
Alquiler	833. 33	833. 33
Impresión	3, 279. 25	9, 456. 36	12, 735. 61
Sellos de correo	153. 17	266. 00	419. 17
Biblioteca	36. 50	11. 25	47. 75
Comisiones por contratos antes del 1º de marzo de 1898	2, 375. 18	2, 375. 18
Teléfono	33. 75	33. 75	67. 50
Otros	178. 55	1, 140. 36	1, 318. 91
Total	19, 430. 79	16, 078. 85	35, 509. 64

RELATORIO

DA

SECRETARIA DAS REPUBLICAS AMERICANAS.

MENSAGEM DO PRESIDENTE DOS ESTADOS UNIDOS REMET-
TENDO-O AO CONGRESSO.—CARTA DO SECRETARIO DE
ESTADO COMPENDIANDO OS RESULTADOS OBTIDOS.

RESTABELECIMENTO DAS RELAÇÕES COM A REPUBLICA ARGEN-
TINA—ENTRADA PROVAVEL DO CHILE NA UNIÃO—RECENTES
PROGRESSOS FEITOS NOS TRABALHOS DA SECRETARIA.

O relatorio annual do Director da Secretaria das Republicas Americanas para o anno de 1898 foi remettido, com os documentos annexos, ao Congresso dos Estados Unidos a 6 de Janeiro, acompanhado da seguinte mensagem do Presidente:

Ao Senado e Camara de Deputados:

Remetto juntamente com esta uma communicação do Secretario de Estado que contem o relatorio annual do Director da Secretaria das Republicas Americanas, com os documentos annexos.

Havendo melhorado a condição da Secretaria e prestando esta hoje maiores serviços, segundo o manifestei em minha mensagem annual, e em vista das promessas de que as outras Republicas americanas se interessarão mais em sua manutenção, dou minha sincera approvação ás recommendações do Secretario de Estado. Estou seguro de que será tão agradável para o Congresso, como o tem sido para mim, a noticia de que a Republica Argentina

tem resolvido a restabelecer suas relações com a Secretaria, e de que ha esperanças de que a União Internacional Americana, creada pela notavel conferencia dos representantes de nossas republicas irmãs e dos Estados Unidos, que celebrou suas sessões em Washington em 1889-90, chegue a ser completa pela adhesão da Republica do Chile ao pacto que se firmou para a manutenção da Secretaria como órgão da União. Os interesses dos Estados Unidos em levar a effeito os louvaveis desejos da Conferencia Internacional para promover não sómente o commercio mas mais estreitas relações de amizade entre as Republicas deste hemispherio, são tão evidentes, que não duvido que a Secretaria contará com as sympathias e o apoio do Congresso em seu caracter de agencia practica para a realização dos objectos mencionados.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

PALACIO EXECUTIVO,

Washington, 6 de Janeiro de 1899.

CARTA DO SECRETARIO DE ESTADO.

Senhor PRESIDENTE :

Tenho a honra de remetter-vos o relatorio annual do Director da Secretaria das Republicas Americanas, que versa principalmente sobre a administração provisoria da Secretaria desde o fallecimento do ultimo director, Mr. JOSEPH P. SMITH, no dia 5 de Fevereiro de 1898. O relatorio foi lido e approvado na reunião da Commissão Executiva da União Internacional das Republicas Americanas, realizada no dia 17 do mez corrente. Observar-se-ha que os esforços do Director provisorio, que é um empregado da Secretaria de Estado, designado no mez de Fevereiro proximo passado, com a approvação da Commissão Executiva, para que se fizesse cargo da Secretario, têm sido dirigidos principalmente á realização dos importantes projectos de seu predecessor, assim como a fazer frente ás difficuldades economicas

produzidas em sua maior parte por operações mercantis a que deu lugar um contrato celebrado pela Comissão Executiva em Novembro de 1896, afim de obter annuncios para o *BOLETIM MENSAL*, e tambem a conciliar a opposição de algumas empresas periodisticas e outras á concurrencia que lhes fazia uma Secretaria sustentada, em parte, por verbas votadas pelo Congresso dos Estados Unidos, com os desejos da Comissão Executiva de obter fundos para manter a Secretaria e augmentar devidamente suas operações.

Me é satisfactorio poder assegurar que a administração provisoria tem obtido os fins indicados, e que a Secretaria parece haver entrado em uma via de desenvolvimento que promette a gradual realização dos propositos da Conferencia Internacional Americana de 1889-90, que a estabeleceu como uma agencia para promover as relações commerciaes e fraternaes entre as varias republicas do hemispherio occidental. Os esforços da Secretaria no passado, segundo se indicou no relatorio annual do Director para o anno de 1897, têm sido necessariamente de character mais ou menos experimental, devido ao facto de que o plano traçado pela Conferencia Internacional era novo, tanto em sua concepção como em seu alcance, e para leval-o a effeito havia de resolver muitos problemas complicados. É de esperar que estejamos já andando sobre terreno firme, e nos induz a nutrir essa esperança não só a condição actual da Secretaria e o que promette para o futuro, mas o facto de que as outras republicas da União lhe estão prestando seu apoio cordial e decidido.

Pelo relatorio do Director se vê que o pedido ultimamente feito ás Republicas latinas de que pagassem suas quotas annuaes para a manutenção da Secretaria tem dado em resultado que cinco dellas têm pago uma quantia maior do que toda a somma recebida durante o exercicio anterior. Tambem se observará que alguns dos membros da União Internacional que por alguns annos haviam deixado de figurar nella, manifestam agora desejos de restabelecer

suas passadas relações com a Secretaria, e de volver a contribuir com suas quotas para a manutenção da mesma. Um dos paizes em referencia é a Republica Argentina que acaba de communicar officialmente sua intenção de obrar da maneira indicada. O Director tambem chama a attenção para o interesse que manifesta o Ministro do Chile nos Estados Unidos a respeito da Secretaria, o qual justifica a esperanza de que aquella Republica, que foi o unico dos paizes que participaram na Conferencia Internacional Americana que não entrou na União, se resolverá a entrar nella, completando assim a união das republicas americanas, destinada a fazer mais estreitos os laços que as ligam para beneficio de todas.

No momento em que a attenção de todos se dirige com mais interesse que nunca para os mercados que em outras terras se offerecem á industria e ao commercio dos Estados Unidos, é da maior importancia que aproveitemos as numerosas mostras de amizade que nos dão nossos vizinhos do sul com o fim de estabelecer uma permuta de productos e de ajudar-nos mutuamente; e si tomamos em consideração os muitos pontos em que os interesses e aspirações das republicas latino-americanas estão de accordo com os que estão mais profundamente gravados em nossa vida nacional, é evidente que cada passo que tenda a identificar-nos em sympathias e propositos deve contribuir de modo sensivel ao desenvolvimento economico e social, tanto de nossas republicas irmãs como de nos mesmos. Desde o ponto de vista dos serviços que neste sentido pode prestar a Secretaria das Republicas Americanas, o augmento que se dê a seus trabalhos de accordo com as miras dos representantes dos outros paizes que figuram na União Internacional deve, a meu juizo, ser motivo de congratulações, e me permitto indicar que se chame a attenção do Congresso para o facto de que se estão fazendo esforços para economizar e augmentar os recursos da Secretaria para que seja de maior utilidade com o menor custo possivel ao thesouro publico.

Ao meu pedido, o Secretario do Thesouro tem enviado ao Con-

gresso o orçamento da despesa da Secretaria para o proximo exercicio, assim como um projecto de lei para que se permita á dita Secretaria fazer uso das quantias que se recebam dos outros paizes durante o presente anno fiscal. As razões que se tiveram em mira ao formular este projecto de lei estão expostas nas communicações do Director da Secretaria que acompanham ás que o Secretario do Thesouro tem dirigido á Camara dos Deputados, e espero que o Congresso as estimará justificadas pelas necessidades do caso.

Tenho a honra de apoiar a recommendação do Director de que se peça autorisação ao Congresso para imprimir 2,500 exemplares do relatorio annual, afim de que a Secretaria possa distribuil-os para satisfazer os pedidos de informação que se recebem acerca de sua condição actual e seus planos para o futuro.

Sou de V. S. attento respeitador,

JOHN HAY.

SECRETARIA DE ESTADO.

Washington, 30 de Dezembro de 1898.

CARTA DO DIRECTOR.

SECRETARIA DAS REPUBLICAS AMERICANAS,

Washington, D. C., 21 de Dezembro de 1898.

SENHOR: De conformidade com as instrucções que me foram dadas pela Comissão Executiva da União Internacional das Republicas Americanas, na sessão de 17 do corrente, tenho a honra de rogar-vos que o relatorio que acompanha a esta e que versa sobre os trabalhos da Secretaria das Republicas Americanas durante o anno passado, juntamente com um curto resumo das deliberações da Comissão Executiva na dita sessão, seja submettido ao Senhor Presidente afim de que seja remettido ao Congresso dos Estados Unidos.

Além da noticia, contida no relatorio, de que é possível que a Republica do Chile dê por primeira vez seu apoio á Secretaria,

me agrada poder manifestar que acabo de ser informado officialmente de que a Republica Argentina, que desde 1891 não tinha contribuido para a manutenção da Secretaria, tem resolvido tomar as medidas necessarias afim de restabelecer suas antigas relações. Este feliz resultado se deve especialmente ao Dr. DON MARTÍN GARCÍA MEROU, Ministro da Republica Argentina em Washington, quem tem sido empenhado em fazer comprehender a seu Governo a importancia crescente da Secretaria.

Afim de poder responder ás perguntas que de muitas partes se me dirigem a respeito da condição e propositos da Secretaria, me permitto recommendar-vos que se peça ao Congresso autorisação para imprimir uma edição de 2,500 exemplares do relatório annual, afim de que possam ser distribuidos pela Secretaria.

Sou de V. S. muito attento servidor,

FREDERIC EMORY,
Director.

Ao Senhor SECRETARIO DE ESTADO.

ACTA DA SESSÃO DA COMMISSÃO EXECUTIVA DA UNIÃO INTERNACIONAL DAS REPUBLICAS AMERICANAS QUE SE REALIZOU SABBADO, 17 DE DEZEMBRO DE 1898.

WASHINGTON, D. C., 17 de Dezembro de 1898.

A Comissão Executiva da União Internacional das Republicas Americanas reuniu-se na sala de recepção da Secretaria de Estado, Sabbado, 17 de Dezembro de 1898, ás 11 horas da manhã.

A reunião foi presidida pelo Honrado JOHN HAY, Secretario de Estado.

Os outros membros que estiveram presentes foram :

O Sr. Dr. DON MARTÍN GARCÍA MEROU, Ministro da Republica Argentina.

O Sr. DON JOAQUIM BERNARDO CALVO, Ministro de Costa Rica.

O Sr. DON MANUEL M. PONTE, Encarregado de Negocios de Venezuela.

O Director da Secretaria das Republicas Americanas, Mr. EMORY, tambem esteve presente.

Havendo manifestado a Commissão que estava prompta para dar principio á sessão, o Director leu o relatorio annual da Secretaria, depois do qual explicou os pontos principaes relativos á questão economica, e o fez como segue:

Na primeira pagina se dá conta da receita e despeza durante o exercicio findo em 30 de Julho de 1898. No dia 5 de Fevereiro de 1898 encarreguei-me da administração da Secretaria, e o quadro detalhado que apparece na proxima pagina mostra como se gastou o dinheiro durante o resto do exercicio. Na pagina terceira apparece um quadro da receita e despeza desde o dia 1º de Julho de 1898 até o dia 30 de Novembro do mesmo anno, e esse quadro é importante porque mostra a actual condição da Secretaria e seus recursos.

A verba votada para os gastos annuaes foi de \$36,000, e aquelles ascenderam a \$19,430.79, ficando assim no dia 1º de Dezembro de 1898 um saldo de \$16,569.21. A receita proveniente de annuncios e vendas do Directorio Commercial e outras publicações, durante este periodo, desde o 1º de Julho até o 30 de Novembro, foi de \$17,812.35, e as despezas subiram a \$16,078.85, deixando um saldo de \$1,733.50. A esta somma tenho aggregado o valor dos annuncios até o 1º de Dezembro de 1898, \$16,500, e o de contas não collectadas, \$8,000, o qual mostra um total a favor da Secretaria de \$42,802.71, no dia 1º de Dezembro de 1898. No quadro numero quatro se expõem minuciosamente os gastos feitos por mim desde o 1º de Julho até o 1º de Dezembro, e alli apparece uma parcella—commissões segundo contrato antes do 1º de Março de 1898—o qual quer dizer que essas sommas estavam contrahidas quando ainda não estava á meu cargo a Secretaria, e tenho estado pagando-as do melhor modo que me tem sido possivel.

O Ministro da Republica Argentina, Senhor MÉROU, disse: Encontramos muito satisfactorio o relatorio de Mr. EMORY e podemos approval-o em sua totalidade. Causa muita satisfação a noticia de que o Governo do Chile pode entrar na União com os outros paizes latino-americanos, fazendo-a assim completa. Creio que talvez seria conveniente fazer constar na acta uma manifestação do prazer que a Commissão sente com este motivo.

O Ministro de Costa Rica, Senhor CALVO, disse: Approvo a indicação do Sr. Ministro da Republica Argentina, e espero que se autorisará ao Director para que exprima ao Sr. Ministro do Chile os sinceros desejos que tem a Commissão de que a Republica do Chile entre a formar parte da União.

O Sr. PRESIDENTE disse: De accordo com os desejos da Commissão, o Director se servirá a communicar ao Ministro do Chile a satisfação que sente a Commissão ao receber a noticia de que este paiz possa entrar na União.

Depois disto, o relatorio foi approvedo e se deram instrucções ao Director para que tomasse as medidas de costume afim de que o dito documento fosse enviado ao Congresso dos Estados Unidos.

Levantou-se a sessão.

RELATORIO ANNUAL.

SECRETARIA DAS REPUBLICAS AMERICANAS,

Washington, 17 de Dezembro de 1898.

Ao Sr. Secretario de Estado, Presidente da Commissão Executiva da União Internacional das Republicas Americanas, e aos outros membros da dita Commissão:

SENHORES: Tenho a honra de submeter a vossa consideração o relatorio relativo aos trabalhos da Secretaria das Republicas Americanas desde que fui designado para encarregar-me da administração della com motivo do fallecimento do ultimo Director,

Mr. JOSEPH P. SMITH, a 5 de Fevereiro de 1898. A prematura morte de Mr. SMITH, que tinha estado Director menos de um anno, privou á Secretaria de seus serviços, e poz termo á execução de seus projectos, em parte realizados, e que tendiam a fazer de mais alcance e utilidade pratica os trabalhos que a Conferencia Internacional Americana teve em vista quando estabeleceu a Secretaria em 1890. O que Mr. SMITH se propunha está explicado com toda claridade no relatório annual que foi preparado segundo suas instrucções, mas que elle não teve tempo de approvar, relatório que eu apresentei á Commissão a 28 de Fevereiro proximo passado, por razão de que, segundo o manifestei em minha communicação daquella data, continha em substancia suas ideas. Este relatório contem um resumo cuidadosamente preparado sobre os trabalhos da Secretaria até a epoca em que fui nomeado pelo Secretario de Estado, e com a approvação da Commissão Executiva, Director interino.

Por ordem do Congresso dos Estados Unidos, o relatório tem sido impresso, e é inutil, portanto, que eu repita as conclusões a que chega aquelle documento. Me é satisfactorio, sem embargo, poder assegurar que em quanto me tem sido possivel, sob as condições em que encontrei a Secretaria, tenho podido realizar os planos a que o finado Director dava maior importancia. Entre estes projectos, figurava a conclusão do Directorio Commercial das Republicas Americanas, obra em dous volumes, e que contem 2, 643 paginas de bem escolhida materia descriptiva e estatistica, nas quaes se expõem as riquezas naturaes, industrias, commercio e leis que se referem á agricultura e ao commercio em todos os paizes do hemispherio occidental, e se dão listas de commerciantes e industriaes especialmente interessados no desenvolvimento das relações commerciaes entre as differentes nações.

O segundo volume, que contem 1,589 paginas, foi publicado em Novembro de 1898, e se deu principio á distribuição de exemplares a 24 do mesmo mez, ou um anno depois da publicação do

primeiro volume. Esta obra que foi projectada em sua totalidade pelo finado Director, é considerada como única, tanto por seu alcance como pela exactidão das informações que contem, e se crê que chegará a ser de grande valor pratico ás casas de commercio que se dedicam ao commercio com a America Latina, ao mesmo tempo que servirá como obra de referencia a todos os que procuram informações relativas ao desenvolvimento industrial e commercial das Republicas Americanas e das colonias europeas no mar das antilhas e em outros pontos deste hemispherio. A Secretaria está especialmente agradecida á Associação Nacional de Manufactureiros e ao Museu Commercial de Philadelphia pelas importantes indicações que lhe têm feito e pela ajuda que lhe tem prestado na compilação de listas de casas de commercio para aquella parte do segundo volume do Directorio Commercial dedicada aos Estados Unidos.

Outro dos fins que o finado Director se propunha especialmente alcançar, segundo se vê por seu relatorio annual, era que a Secretaria se recommendasse por si mesma ás casas de commercio das republicas americanas como uma agencia importante para remover os obstaculos que se oppõem ao estabelecimento de relações mercantis mais estreitas com os Estados Unidos, assim como para abrir novos mercados ao commercio. Tenho muita satisfação em poder dizer que se têm feito progressos neste sentido e que posso repetir com emphasis estas palavras do finado Director em seu relatorio annual para 1897: "A Secretaria deve grande parte de seu recente desenvolvimento á activa participação e á vigilancia dos representantes em Washington das varias republicas que della formam parte." Ao terminar o anno de 1898 a Secretaria se encontra em uma posição muito satisfactoria, pois conta com o apoio unanime e cordial dos representantes diplomaticos de todos os paizes que compõem a União, e abriga a esperanza de que as republicas latino-americanas continuarão manifestando cada dia crescente interesse em seus trabalhos. Essas esperanças se justifi-

cam com as numerosas manifestações de apreço e sympathia existentes nos archivos da Secretaria. Um incidente muito agradável, e que veio a corroborar esta maneira de ver as cousas, foi a recente visita que fez á Secretaria o Senhor Presidente de Costa Rica, quem, depois de haver examinado os trabalhos da mesma, manifestou que mereciam sua approvação e que era seu proposito contribuir em quanto lhe fosse possivel ao desenvolvimento da dita Secretaria.

A Secretaria sente tambem especial agradecimento para com o Senhor ROMERO, Ministro do Mexico, que formou parte da Comissão Executiva e que ao separar-se della no mez de Junho proximo passado, de conformidade com a disposição que prescreve que cada anno cesse em suas funcções um dos membros do dito corpo, continuou sempre manifestando o maior interesse nos assumptos da União Internacional. Assim mesmo está muito reconhecida a Secretaria ao ex-Ministro do Brazil nos Estados Unidos, Senhor MENDONÇA, quem desde que ella foi organizada, a favoreceu com suas indicações e com seu apoio mais decidido. O Senhor DON CARLOS MORLA VICUÑA, ultimamente nomeado Ministro do Chile nos Estados Unidos, tem honrado a Secretaria com manifestações que provam o interesse que toma em seus trabalhos. Isto nutre a esperanza de que o Governo chileno, que apezar de haver estado representado na Conferencia Internacional Americana que estabeleceu a Secretaria, nunca tem querido fazer uso de seu direito de entrar na União, se decidirá a prestar á Secretaria seu efficaz apoio.

Segundo tive a honra de informar á Commissão na sessão de 28 de Fevereiro de 1898, encontrei os negocios da Secretaria em alguma desordem quando encarreguei-me da administração della, o qual foi resultado da longa enfermidade do ultimo Director. A situação economica não era satisfactoria, devido a um contrato que tinha celebrado, com autorisação da Commissão, o predecessor do ultimo Director, em novembro de 1896. O fim que a Commis-

são se propoz ao approvar este convenio foi obter fundos para a Secretaria por meio de annuncios no *BOLETIM MENSAL* da mesma, afim de fazer frente aos gastos occasionados por esta publicação, melhoral-a e augmentar sua circulação, tendo em vista dar a conhecer aos differentes paizes os recursos, industrias e commercio de cada um. De accordo com o contrato, a pessoa encarregada de solicitar annuncios devia receber por sua commissão 40 por cento do valor dos que obtivesse. Como base para o bom exito desta operação, se fez imprimir durante alguns mezes uma edição do *BOLETIM MENSAL* com um custo de \$9,000 por mez, ou \$108,000 por anno. A renda total produzida annualmente pelos annuncios foi calculada em \$60,000, mas desta somma tinha de deduzir 40 por cento para o pagamento da commissão, o qual deixava reduzida aquella a \$36,000.

Como o pagamento das commissões se fazia immediatamente, e era preciso esperar para o reembolso a cobrança do valor dos annuncios, era evidente que, ainda que a supposta renda houvesse sido sufficiente, se necessitava dispor de consideravel capital para fazer frente áquelles desembolsos. A quantia fixada para os gastos da Secretaria não era mais que de \$28,000, e o augmento de seus trabalhos fazia indispensavel que se empregasse consideravel numero de pessoas, além das que já estavam em serviço. O Congresso dos Estados Unidos votou em Janeiro de 1898, a quantia de \$41,972 para cobrir o *deficit*. Nessa data a Secretaria estava atrasada no pagamento dos ordenados e de numerosas reclamações procedentes de suas operações economicas, assim como do augmento nos trabalhos occasionados pela necessidade de compilar, traduzir, copiar com a machina de escrever, etc., os dados requeridos para varias publicações. Era evidente que o saldo que ficava da somma votada para cobrir o *deficit*, apenas podia bastar para estes gastos e para levar a cabo os trabalhos começados.

Nestas circumstancias, indiquei á Commissão Executiva a con-

veniencia de pôr fim ao contrato para solicitar annuncios, mediante o pagamento de uma agencia com este fim, especialmente em vista das queixas procedentes de varias partes contra a concorrência que os agentes de uma Secretaria, sustentada em parte pelo Governo dos Estados Unidos, faziam a empresas particulares que se dedicavam ao negocio dos annuncios. Por outra parte, parecia possível levar a cabo o pensamento da Comissão Executiva relativo á obtenção de uma renda para fazer frente aos gastos do *BOLETIM MENSAL*, por continuar a offerer suas columnas aos commerciantes e industriaes, como um meio para dar a conhecer suas mercadorias nos mercados aonde desejarem envial-as, e isto sem a mediação de pessoas que especulam mais ou menos nesta classe de negocios, e sem fazer indevida concorrência a empresas particulares. A Comissão Executiva aceitou minhas indicações, e me nomeou Director da Secretaria por um periodo que não devia passar do fim do anno economico em curso, isto é, do dia 30 de Junho de 1898, e me deu ampla autorisação para reorganisar a Secretaria, cancellar os contratos celebrados com o fim de solicitar annuncios ou assignaturas, ou outros que me parecessem nocivos aos interesses da Secretaria, “tendo sempre em vista os interesses geraes da União Internacional e os desejos da Comissão.”

Com esta autorisação, dei immediatamente aviso de estar terminado o contrato para solicitar annuncios, e procedi a reorganisar a Secretaria, de modo de conciliar seus assumptos commerciaes que estimava valiosos, com as limitações impostas por seu character official e com os meios de que se podiam dispor.

A 21 de Maio de 1898 tive a satisfação de poder informar á Comissão que as medidas economicas adoptadas tinham dado em resultado uma redução de \$5,000 mensaes das despesas que se faziam quando tomei a meu cargo a Secretaria, e assim mesmo lhe manifestei que abrigava a esperanza de que os fundos da Secretaria fossem sufficientes para levar adiante os trabalhos até a conclusão do anno economico, o dia 30 de Junho de 1898. Minhas

esperanças se realisaram, e ao fim do citado anno ficava um saldo de \$702.78. As recommendações que fiz á Commissão Executiva no relatorio que apresentei na sessão de 21 de Maio foram aceitadas.

No dia 25 de Junho de 1898 se verificou outra sessão da Commissão Executiva e nella manifestei que se acercava o dia 30 de Junho, data fixada para a expiração de meu periodo como Director provisorio. Creêdo a Commissão que não era opportuna, sob as condições então existentes, a nomeação de um Director permanente, prorogou meu periodo como Director provisorio até o dia 1º de Outubro e de novo me conferiu os poderes especiaes que me tinha dado no dia 28 de Fevereiro. Nas sessões da Commissão Executiva de 27 de Setembro e de 26 de Outubro de 1898 foi prorogado novamente o citado periodo. Nesta ultima sessão se resolveu que a administração provisoria da Secretaria continuará com character indefinido afim de que a Commissão não se viesse obrigado a emittir outra resolução a respeito da administração antes de que houvessem realizados os projectos que estão em via de execução para o desenvolvimento dos trabalhos sobre bases mais economicas.

Os esforços da direcção provisoria têm sido dedicados necessariamente, em grande parte, aos trabalhos de reorganisação, a levar a cabo os planos do anterior Director, ao pagamento de dividas e ao arranjo de um grande numero de questões resultantes da mudança de methodo na administração da Secretaria. Considerou-se conveniente não sómente arranjar os assumptos da Secretaria, mas demonstrar tambem a practicabilidade de augmentar sua esphera de acção obtendo maior renda por meio de annuncios e venda de publicações, evitando desta maneira a necessidade de dirigir-se outra vez ao Congresso dos Estados Unidos para pedir um credito suplementar. Esperava-se que este resultado podesse ser obtido sem invadir indevidamente os direitos das pessoas occupadas na publicação de annuncios das casas editoriaes. O

methodo empregado para a obtenção de annuncios dentro destes limites está amplamente explicado no aviso que se publica no **BOLETIM MENSAL** desde o dia 5 de Fevereiro ultimo. Os resultados justificam a esperança de que a Secretaria receberá o apoio pecuniario das casas de commercio de importancia que têm interesse no desenvolvimento das relações commerciaes entre as varias republicas americanas, e justificam assim mesmo a esperança de que em dia não remoto o **BOLETIM MENSAL** possa manter-se por si mesmo sem necessidade de agencia em commissão e o consequente pagamento de dinheiro antes da entrada da renda proveniente de annuncios.

Os contratos de annuncios têm sido renovados em quantia de \$4,961 e têm-se feito novos contratos por \$1,018. Estes resultados, ainda que pequenos em proporção á importancia bruta obtida sob o systema anterior, são substancialmente animadores por quanto têm sido obtidos sem indevida solicitação e deixarão em beneficio da Secretaria uma utilidade igual a sua importancia. Não duvido que a continuação da conducta actual a respeito dos annuncios dará em resultado, dentro de um periodo relativamente curto, um augmento na circulação do **BOLETIM**, um grande adiantamento no character das materias contidas no mesmo, e a manutenção desta publicação independentemente da quantia votada pelo Governo. A distribuição gratuita do **BOLETIM** nos Estados Unidos tem occasionado gastos que, a meu juizo, não estavam justificados pelos recursos da Secretaria, e a circulação livre está limitada agora aos periodicos, camaras de commercio, bibliothecas, funcçionarios do Governo e pessoas que solicitam informações especificas. Nas actuaes condições tenho encontrado justificavel pedir ao Congresso dos Estados Unidos que disponha a publicação de 5,000 numeros mensaes para o proximo anno fiscal findo em 30 de Junho de 1900, com o objecto de distribuil-os neste paiz como meio de propagar um conhecimento melhor das fontes de riqueza e possibilidades commerciaes das Republicas latino-americanas. Uma edição

de 8,000 numeros é distribuida no Mexico, America Central e do Sul e as Antilhas, e o custo desta edição assim como o dos numeros que agora se estão distribuindo nos Estados Unidos pode ser pago a meu juizo com a renda provavel proveniente de annuncios.

Além da publicação do BOLETIM, os trabalhos da Secretaria comprehendem a compilação e impressão, de quando em quando, de manuaes sobre os diversos paizes latino-americanos. Quatro destes manuaes têm sido concluidos, e só espero contar com os meios de custear suas despesas de impressão e distribuição para dar-lhes publicidade. O anterior Director chamou a attenção em seu relatorio ao facto de que as verbas votadas para a manutenção da Secretaria não têm sido nunca sufficientes para occorrer ás despesas de impressão de varios documentos que exigiam os planos traçados pela Conferencia Internacional, especialmente em vista do facto que todos esses documentos devem ser impressos no idioma do paiz a que se referem, de igual sorte que em inglez. Sobre este ponto o anterior Director se exprimiu nos seguintes termos:

Investigações mostrarão que os Directores anteriores da Secretaria foram obrigados a recorrerem a varios expedientes afim de poderem imprimir as publicações que sahiram á luz de tempos a tempos. Não teria sido possivel imprimir estas publicações com os fundos á disposição da Secretaria. Obteve-se autorisação do Congresso dos Estados Unidos para publicar os differentes manuaes e outras publicações como documentos do Congresso, que deviam ser pagos do fundo geral de impressão.

Como meio de vencer esta difficuldade, em parte ao menos, o anterior Director propoz aos representantes dos paizes que compõem a União Internacional, que deem passos com o objecto de obter para a Secretaria o uso das quotas contribuidas pelas outras republicas, as quaes são actualmente entregues ao Thesouro dos Estados Unidos, para reembolsar este da quantia das quotas dos varios paizes. Calculou-se que esta medida daria uma renda de uns

\$45,000 ou \$50,000. Tenho dado passos para levar á pratica esta suggestão, e tem-se pedido ao Congresso dos Estados Unidos a autorisação deste projecto. Têm-se dirigido communicações aos governos dos outros paizes da União Internacional perguntando-lhes si se lhes offerece objecção alguma a respeito da mudança proposta, e quatro delles têm contestado já manifestando seu consentimento. As quantias que se têm recebido dos outros paizes têm variado de anno a anno, mas tenho o prazer de consignar que ha fundamentos substanciaes para esperar que as quotas deste anno excedem com muito a média annual. A Secretaria tem sido informada do prompto pagamento das quotas correspondentes a cinco daquelles paizes, cujo total ascende a \$5,027.78; um delles, Venezuela, tem pago a quantia de \$540.41 em excesso durante o exercicio findo em 30 de Junho de 1898. Esta quantia excede ao total de quotas recebidas dos outros paizes da União no exercicio anterior, que foi de \$4,216.02.

Além de suas varias publicações, a Secretaria se occupa activamente em subministrar informações, já verbalmente, já por escripto, aos que as pedem, não sómente dos Estados Unidos, mas tambem de muitas outras partes do mundo, especialmente nos paizes da União Internacional Americana. Este ramo dos trabalhos da Secretaria tem alcançado taes proporções que o anterior Director houve de estabelecer uma secção de informação com o objecto especial de responder aos pedidos de informações. Estes pedidos de informações têm continuado augmentando em numero, e a Secretaria recebe com frequencia cartas dos outros paizes da União, nas quaes se solicita o auxilio da Secretaria com o objecto de obter informações em assumptos commerciaes, ou de interessar o capital americano em emprezas mineiras, industriaes ou commerciaes nos diversos paizes. Muitas das cartas referem-se em termos laudatorios ao BOLETIM MENSAL da Secretaria, facto que indica que essa publicação se está distribuindo com resultados satisfactorios nos paizes latino-americanos e que se está dando a

conhecer como meio pratico de fomentar o commercio. A Secretaria responde aos pedidos dos iniciadores de empresas especiaes em busca de capital americano, chamando sómente a attenção a taes empresas nas paginas do BOLETIM depois de convencer-se de que propriamente pode dar-se publicidade a taes projectos. Nos casos em que a Secretaria não pode prestar ajuda alguma, se suggere aos solicitantes que recorrem ás corporações commerciaes dos Estados Unidos que estejam comprehendidas nas especificações dentro do campo de acção que interessa ao solicitante.

As perguntas que geralmente se fazem se referem ás fontes especiaes agricolas e mineiras dos varios paizes ; á maneira de obter terrenos para o cultivo, para a criação de gado e para a mineração; os methodos empregados para a fabricação da assucar e producção de café, cacáo, borracha, frutas tropicaes, etc., e as medidas que se têm de tomar para adquirir terras, ja seja para a applicação da actividade particular ou para levar a cabo empresas em uma escala mais comprehensiva. Frequentemente se pedem informações acerca dos direitos impostos nos diversos paizes sobre artigos ou classes especiaes de mercadorias, direitos de entrada e regulamentos de portos, estatisticas de exportação e importação, condições impostas pelas leis de um paiz respeito ás industrias e ao commercio, nomes dos funcionarios do governo a quem ha de dirigir-se em assumptos especiaes, etc. Dos paizes latino-americanos, vêm, em numero crescente, pedidos de informações sobre os mercados dos Estados Unidos com relação a certos productos daquelles paizes e ás classes de artigos que se produzem ou fabricam nos Estados Unidos que podessem ser tomados em permuta, os nomes dos importadores e exportadores interessados no commercio latino-americano, e outros pontos que mostram um grande desejo de cultivar ralações mais estreitas.

Em cumprimento da recommendação feita pelo anterior Director em seu relatorio á Commissão Executiva em Fevereiro ultimo, a Secretaria foi representada exhibindo seus trabalhos

na Exposição Internacional Trans-mississippiana de Omaha, Nebraska, a qual encerrou-se a 31 de Outubro ultimo. No BOLETIM de Novembro de 1898, paginas 777-779, se encontrará um relatorio apresentado pelo agente da Secretaria naquella Exposição. Neste relatorio se indica que a exhibição feita pela Secretaria servio não sómente para fazer conhecer mais extensamente ao povo dos Estados Unidos a utilidade da Secretaria, mas tambem para attrahir a attenção para as possibilidades commerciaes e industriaes do Mexico, America Central e do Sul, e as Antilhas. O anterior Director suggerio tambem a idea de que a Secretaria fosse representada na Exposição de Paris de 1900, assim como nas exposições que tenham de celebrar-se nos differentes paizes da União Internacional. Como meu cargo de director é meramente provisorio, não senti-me justificado em tomar medidas para levar a cabo estas recommendações, mas as submetto respectivamente á consideração da Comissão Executiva.

Remetto juntamente com este um relatorio sobre a situação economica da Secretaria durante o exercicio findo em 30 de Junho de 1898, e que comprehende tambem o periodo transcorrido desde a data em que assumi o encargo de Director da Secretaria, em 5 de Fevereiro ultimo até o 1º do corrente; acompanho tambem os numeros do BOLETIM MENSAL publicados durante o anno passado, nos quaes se dá conta successivamente dos trabalhos realizados pela Secretaria. É objecto de grande prazer para mim reiterar em meu proprio nome as expressões de reconhecimento que o anterior Director fez presente á Comissão Executiva, e que eu extendo aos representantes de todos os paizes da União Internacional pela sua valiosa cooperação no exito dos trabalhos da Secretaria e seu cordial apoio dos esforços feitos para augmentar sua utilidade.

Tenho a honra de ser vosso obediente servidor,

FREDERIC EMORY,

Director.

66 RELATORIO DA SECRETARIA DAS REPUBLICAS AMERICANAS.

RECEITA.

1º de Julho de 1897 até 30 de Junho de 1898.

Verba votada :

Verba annual, 1898..... \$23,000.00

Verba supplementar, 1898..... 41,972.00

\$69,972.00

Annuncios..... 32,051.41

Vendas :

Do Directorio Commercial 16,681.50

De outras publicações..... 5,904.14

22,585.64

Total 124,609.05

Gastos..... 123,906.27

Balanço, 1º de Julho de 1898. 702.78

DESPEZA.

De 1º de Julho de 1897 até 30 de Junho de 1898.

	Pago pelo pagador da Secretaria de Estado.		Pago pelo Director da Secretaria* do fundo de receita recebida de aluguel, vendas, etc.	Total.
	Pela verba para o exercicio de 1898.	Do fundo de receita recebida de aluguel, vendas, etc.		
Ordenados dos empregados.....	\$37,999.69	\$8,184.58	\$3,908.16	\$50,092.43
Papel de escriptorio.....	6,968.95	964.69	781.00	8,714.64
Aluguel de casa para a Secretaria.	1,666.66	833.35	2,500.01
Commissões	5,884.70	5,200.00	13,105.80	24,190.50
Gastos da repartição de New York	360.83	553.43	2,065.63	2,979.89
Machinas de escrever.....	1,086.07	1,086.07
Mobilia, concertos, etc.....	1,191.65	165.79	1,357.44
Sellos de correio	778.00	450.00	1,228.00
Bibliotheca	89.12	241.61	100.60	431.33
Cabo e telegrapho.....	731.62	127.91	96.46	955.99
Impressão do Boletim	7,636.01	11,773.94	1,000.00	20,409.95
Mappas	2,714.34	206.25	2,920.59
Telephono.....	263.96	62.50	326.46
Gastos varios	2,547.44	2,314.45	1,851.08	6,712.97
Total.....	69,919.04	30,422.25	23,564.98	123,906.27

* Não se tem feito pagamento algum pelo Director desde 5 de Fevereiro de 1898, com excepção dos recibos expedidos contra o pagador da Secretaria de Estado para seu pagamento dos fundos da verba ou da receita proveniente de vendas, rendas, etc. que se depositam immediatamente no Thesouro dos Estados Unidos.

RELATORIO DA SECRETARIA DAS REPUBLICAS AMERICANAS. 67

De 5 de Fevereiro de 1898 até 30 de Junho de 1898.

	Pago pelo pagador da Secretaria de Estado pela verba para o exercício de 1898.	Pago pelo pagador da Secretaria de Estado do fundo de receita, etc.	Total.
Ordenados dos empregados	\$19, 476. 57	\$514. 61	\$19, 991. 18
Papel de escriptorio	3, 666. 10	13. 69	3, 679. 79
Aluguel de casa para a Secretaria	666. 66	333. 34	1, 000. 00
Commissões por contratos feitos antes do 1 de Março de 1898		5, 200. 00	5, 200. 00
Gastos da repartição de New York	335. 83	553. 45	889. 28
Mobilia	555. 61		555. 61
Bibliotheca	32. 12	145. 69	177. 81
Cabo e telegrapho	602. 80		602. 80
Impressão do Boletim	6, 142. 38	10, 750. 26	16, 892. 64
Mappas	2, 347. 50		2, 347. 50
Telephono	97. 02		97. 02
Gastos varios	1, 522. 28	1, 684. 97	3, 207. 25
Total	35, 444. 87	19, 196. 01	54, 640. 88

Total da receita e despesa de 1º de Julho de 1898 até 30 de Novembro de 1898.

Verba votada, 1899	\$36, 000. 00	
Gastos	19, 430. 79	
Balanço, 1º de Dezembro de 1898		\$16, 569. 21
Receita proveniente de vendas, aluguel, etc.:		
Balanço, 1º de Julho de 1898	649. 82	
De annuncios	\$16, 444. 70	
De vendas:		
Do Directorio Commercial	\$260. 00	
De outras publicações	457. 83	
	717. 83	
	17, 162. 53	
	17, 812. 35	
Gastos	16, 078. 85	
Balanço, 1º de Dezembro de 1898		1, 733. 50
Valor dos annuncios, 1º de Dezembro de 1898		16, 500. 00
Contas não cobradas		8, 000. 00
Total dos recursos da Secretaria 1º de Dezembro de 1898		42, 802. 71

68 RELATORIO DA SECRETARIA DAS REPUBLICAS AMERICANAS.

DESPEZA.

De 1º de Julho até 30 de Novembro de 1898.

	Da verba para o exercício de 1899.	Da receita pro- veniente de vendas, alu- guel, etc.	Total.
Ordenados dos empregados.....	\$14, 830. 44	\$2, 743. 54	\$17, 573. 98
Papel de escriptorio.....	85. 80	52. 41	138. 21
Aluguel da casa da Secretaria.....	833. 33	833. 33
Impressão do Boletim.....	3, 279. 25	9, 456. 36	12, 735. 61
Sellos de correio.....	153. 17	266. 00	419. 17
Bibliotheca.....	36. 50	11. 25	47. 75
Commissões por contratos feitos antes do 1º de Março de 1898.....	2, 375. 18	2, 375. 18
Telephono.....	33. 75	33. 75	67. 50
Gastos varios.....	178. 55	1, 140. 36	1, 318. 91
Total.....	19, 430. 79	16, 078. 85	35, 509. 64

RAPPORT ANNUEL

DU

BUREAU DES RÉPUBLIQUES AMÉRICAINES.

MESSAGE DU PRÉSIDENT DES ETATS-UNIS, LE TRANSMETTANT AU CONGRÈS.—LETTRE DU MINISTRE DES AFFAIRES ÉTRANGÈRES COMMENTANT LES RÉSULTATS.

REPRISE DES RELATIONS PAR LA RÉPUBLIQUE ARGENTINE.—ENTRÉE PROBABLE DU CHILI DANS L'UNION.—PROGRÈS RÉCENT DANS LE TRAVAIL DU BUREAU.

Le rapport annuel du Directeur du Bureau des Républiques Américaines pour l'année 1898 a été transmis, avec les documents qui l'accompagnent, au Congrès des Etats-Unis, le 6 janvier, avec le message suivant du Président :

Au Sénat et à la Chambre des Députés :

Je remets ci-joint une communication reçue du Ministre des Affaires Etrangères renfermant le rapport annuel du Directeur du Bureau des Républiques Américaines, accompagné des documents.

En vue de la condition améliorée et de l'utilité croissante du Bureau, sur laquelle j'ai déjà attiré l'attention dans mon message annuel, et l'assurance agréable d'une plus grande activité de la part des autres Républiques Américaines au maintien de ses projets, j'approuve fortement les recommandations du Ministre des Affaires Etrangères. Il sera sans doute aussi agréable pour le Congrès que pour moi, de savoir que la République Argentine

s'est décidée à reprendre ses relations avec le Bureau, et qu'il y a lieu d'espérer que l'Union Internationale Américaine, créée par la conférence solennelle des représentants de nos Républiques Sœurs, et de ceux des Etats-Unis à Washington en 1889-90, sera bientôt augmentée par l'adhésion de la République du Chili qui se joindra aux autres pour le maintien du Bureau en qualité d'organe de l'Union. L'intérêt que montrent les Etats-Unis en donnant le plus d'aide possible à la Conférence Internationale pour l'encouragement, non seulement des relations commerciales, mais pour le rapprochement de l'intimité parmi les différentes Républiques de cet hémisphère, est si évident que je suis sûr que le progrès fait par le Bureau recevra l'approbation et le soutien du Congrès.

WILLIAM MCKINLEY.

MAISON EXÉCUTIVE,

Washington, le 6 janvier 1899.

LETTRE DU MINISTRE DES AFFAIRES ÉTRANGÈRES.

Monsieur le PRÉSIDENT :

J'ai l'honneur de vous transmettre le rapport annuel du Directeur du Bureau des Républiques Américaines parlant plus spécialement de la direction provisoire du Bureau, depuis la mort de l'ancien Directeur, M. JOSEPH P. SMITH, le 5 février 1898. A une réunion du Comité Exécutif de l'Union Internationale des Républiques Américaines, tenue le 17 de ce mois, on a lu et approuvé le rapport. On remarquera que le Directeur Provisoire, un fonctionnaire du Ministère des Affaires Etrangères, choisi avec le consentement entier du Comité Exécutif pour prendre la direction du Bureau au mois de février dernier, s'est occupé principalement d'exécuter les plus importants projets de l'ancien Directeur; de faire face aux difficultés financières qui sont survenues principalement des opérations commerciales résultant d'un contrat passé par le Comité Exécutif en novembre 1896, afin d'obtenir des

annonces pour le BULLETIN MENSUEL, et de concilier les réclamations des maisons de publicité et des autres intérêts, au sujet de la concurrence d'un bureau maintenu en partie par les allocations du Congrès des Etats-Unis, avec le désir du Comité Exécutif d'obtenir les revenus nécessaires au maintien du Bureau et à l'extension de son travail.

Il m'est agréable de pouvoir dire que la direction provisoire a, en somme, atteint ces résultats, et que le Bureau paraît être entré dans une voie de développement qui promet le progrès constant des projets de la Conférence Internationale Américaine de 1889-1890, en le créant comme agence pour l'encouragement de relations fraternelles et commerciales entre les différentes Républiques de l'Hémisphère Occidental. Les efforts du Bureau dans le passé, ainsi que le rapport du Directeur en 1897 les a fait voir, ont été nécessairement d'un caractère plus ou moins expérimental, vu que le plan tracé par la Conférence Internationale était nouveau dans la conception, ainsi que dans le but à atteindre, et son exécution entraînait la solution de beaucoup de problèmes embarrassants. On espère qu'on est enfin arrivé à une solution sûre, et on trouve lieu de se fier à cet espoir, non seulement à cause de la condition actuelle du Bureau, mais parce que les autres membres de l'Union lui accordent leur protection active et cordiale.

Selon le rapport du Directeur, il paraît que les réponses aux récentes demandes pour le versement des contributions annuelles des pays de l'Amérique Latine ont déjà eu pour résultat le paiement par cinq de ces pays, d'une somme qui dépasse considérablement le total de l'argent reçu pendant l'année fiscale antérieure. On remarquera aussi que quelques membres de l'Union Internationale qui, pendant plusieurs années, ont cessé de prendre une part active, font preuve d'un désir de renouer leurs relations d'autrefois et de renouveler leurs souscriptions pour le maintien du Bureau. Parmi ceux-ci, on peut citer la République Argentine qui vient de notifier officiellement son intention. Le Directeur attire l'attention sur les expressions d'intérêt de la part du Ministre du Chili aux

Etats-Unis, qui justifient l'espoir que le Chili, le seul pays participant à la Conférence Internationale Américaine qui n'est pas devenu dans la suite membre de l'Union, profitera de ce privilège, affermissant ainsi la solidarité des Républiques Américaines dans l'effet d'unir et d'encourager les intérêts communs de tous.

Au moment où les pensées de l'homme se portent plus que jamais vers les bénéfices qui attendent les industries et le commerce des Etats-Unis dans d'autres pays, l'importance de profiter des nombreuses preuves d'amitié de nos voisins du sud, offertes dans l'esprit d'un libre échange et d'un secours mutuel, devient manifeste; et quand nous considérons les nombreux points de rencontre des intérêts et des aspirations des Républiques de l'Amérique Latine, avec ceux qui sont gravés le plus profondément dans notre vie nationale, il semble non moins évident que chaque pas fait vers une identification plus intime de sympathies et de projets doit contribuer sensiblement au développement économique et social de nos Républiques Sœurs, aussi bien qu'au nôtre.

Au point de vue de son utilité probable dans ces directions, l'activité croissante du Bureau des Républiques Américaines sur des lignes qui se recommandent surtout aux représentants des autres pays de l'Union Internationale, me semble un sujet de félicitations spéciales, et je demande respectueusement que l'attention du Congrès soit attirée sur le fait qu'on s'efforce d'économiser les ressources du Bureau, aussi bien que de les développer, afin d'augmenter son utilité pratique sans frais pour le trésor public.

Le Ministre des Finances, sur ma demande, a transmis au Congrès les prévisions du Bureau pour la prochaine année fiscale, ainsi que l'extrait d'un acte permettant l'emploi par le Bureau des sommes reçues des autres pays pendant l'année fiscale courante. Les raisons pour la législation proposée sont données en détail dans les communications du Directeur du Bureau qui accompagnent les lettres du Ministre des Finances à la Chambre des Députés, et qui, j'espère, se recommanderont au Congrès comme étant entièrement justifiées par les exigences actuelles.

J'ai l'honneur d'appuyer les recommandations du Directeur qui demande que le Congrès autorise la publication de 2,500 exemplaires du rapport annuel pour être distribués par le Bureau afin de satisfaire aux demandes d'information relativement à sa condition actuelle et à ses projets pour l'avenir.

Je suis, avec respect,

JOHN HAY.

MINISTÈRE DES AFFAIRES ÉTRANGÈRES,

Washington, le 30 décembre 1898.

LETTRE DU DIRECTEUR.

BUREAU DES RÉPUBLIQUES AMÉRICAINES,

Washington, D. C., le 21 décembre 1898.

MONSIEUR : Conformément aux instructions du Comité Exécutif de l'Union Internationale des Républiques Américaines, dans sa réunion du 17 courant, j'ai l'honneur de demander que le rapport ci-joint des opérations du Bureau des Républiques Américaines, pendant l'année écoulée, ainsi que le résumé succinct des actes du Comité Exécutif à la dernière séance, soient soumis au Président en vue de sa transmission au Congrès des Etats-Unis.

Outre l'information donnée dans le rapport que la République du Chili accordera peut-être pour la première fois son soutien actif au Bureau, je suis heureux de pouvoir dire que je viens de recevoir des informations officielles que la République Argentine, qui depuis 1891 n'a pas contribué au maintien du Bureau, s'est décidée à prendre les mesures nécessaires pour le renouvellement de ses relations antérieures. Pour ce résultat heureux, on doit une reconnaissance toute spéciale à M. le Dr. GARCIA MÉROU, Ministre de la République Argentine à Washington, qui s'est occupé spécialement de faire comprendre à son Gouvernement l'utilité croissante du Bureau.

Afin que le Bureau soit à même de répondre aux demandes reçues de divers endroits relativement à sa condition et ses projets,

je demanderai respectueusement que le Congrès autorise la publication d'une édition de 2,500 exemplaires du rapport annuel pour être distribués par le Bureau.

J'ai l'honneur d'être, Monsieur, avec le plus profond respect, votre très humble serviteur,

FRÉDÉRIC EMORY,
Directeur.

LE MINISTRE DES AFFAIRES ÉTRANGÈRES.

DÉCISIONS DU COMITÉ EXÉCUTIF, UNION INTERNATIONALE DES RÉPUBLIQUES AMÉRICAINES, LE SAMEDI, 17 DÉCEMBRE 1898.

WASHINGTON, D. C., le 17 décembre 1898.

Le Comité Exécutif de l'Union Internationale des Républiques Américaines s'est réuni le samedi, 17 décembre, à 11 heures du matin, dans la salle diplomatique au Ministère des Affaires Étrangères.

La réunion a eu lieu sur la demande de l'Honorable JOHN HAY, Ministre des Affaires Étrangères, Président du Comité.

Voici les noms des membres qui assistaient à cette réunion :

Le Señor Dr. DON MARTIN GARCIA MÉROU, Ministre de la République Argentine;

Le Señor DON JOAQUIN BERNARDO CALVO, Ministre de Costa Rica;

Le Señor DON MANUEL M. PONTÉ, Chargé d'Affaires du Venezuela;

M. FREDERIC EMORY, Directeur du Bureau.

Sur la demande du Comité Exécutif, le Directeur a lu le rapport annuel du Bureau et a expliqué ensuite les principaux points de la situation financière.

La première page donne les recettes et dépenses effectuées pendant l'année fiscale finissant le 30 juin 1898. Je suis entré en fonctions le 5 février 1898, et le rapport détaillé sur la page suivante montrera de quelle manière j'ai effectué les dépenses

pendant le reste de l'année fiscale. Sur la troisième page se trouve l'état des recettes et des dépenses depuis le 1^{er} juillet au 30 novembre 1898, montrant la situation actuelle du Bureau et de ses ressources. L'allocation annuelle était de \$36,000 et les dépenses s'élevaient à \$19,430.79, faisant ressortir le 1^{er} décembre 1898 un excédent de \$16,569.21. Les recettes provenant des annonces et de la vente de l'Annuaire de Commerce et d'autres publications s'élèvent en tout, pendant cette période, du 1^{er} juillet au 30 novembre, à \$17,812.35, et les dépenses à \$16,078.85, faisant ressortir un excédent de \$1,733.50. A cette somme, j'ai ajouté la valeur actuelle des annonces le 1^{er} décembre 1898, soit \$16,500, et des comptes non acquittés qui s'élèvent à \$8,000, donnant ainsi le 1^{er} décembre 1898, un chiffre de \$42,802.71 comme ressources totales du Bureau. Le quatrième tableau expose en détail les sommes que j'ai dépensées depuis le 1^{er} juillet au 1^{er} décembre. Dans cet exposé se trouve un article—commissions sous contrat antérieurement au 1^{er} mars 1898—qui veut dire qu'on les avait décidées avant mon entrée en fonctions. On verra que je les ai acquittées de mon mieux.

Le Ministre de la République Argentine, M. MÉROU, a pris ensuite la parole : “ Nous trouvons que le rapport de M. EMORY est très satisfaisant et nous pouvons lui accorder notre pleine approbation. Je suis très heureux d'apprendre que le Gouvernement du Chili a manifesté son intention d'entrer dans l'Union, ce qui réunira ainsi tous les intérêts de l'Amérique Latine. Je pense qu'il serait peut-être bon de manifester la satisfaction du Comité à cet égard.”

Le Ministre de Costa Rica, M. CALVO, a dit ensuite : “ Je partage les sentiments du Ministre de la République Argentine, et j'espère que le Directeur du Bureau sera autorisé à faire connaître au Ministre du Chili combien le Comité est désireux de voir cette République entrer dans l'Union.”

Le PRÉSIDENT s'est exprimé en ces termes : “ Pour se conformer

aux désirs du Comité, le Directeur fera part au Ministre du Chili de la satisfaction ressentie par le Comité en apprenant les bonnes intentions de cette contrée qui désire devenir membre de l'Union."

On a donc approuvé le rapport, et on a donné les instructions nécessaires au Directeur, afin qu'il puisse le transmettre au Congrès des Etats-Unis.

Le Comité a ensuite levé la séance.

RAPPORT ANNUEL.

BUREAU DES RÉPUBLIQUES AMÉRICAINES,

Washington, le 17 décembre 1898.

Au Ministre des Affaires Etrangères, Président, et aux Membres du Comité Exécutif de l'Union Internationale des Républiques Américaines:

MESSIEURS: J'ai l'honneur de transmettre le rapport des opérations du Bureau des Républiques Américaines depuis que j'en ai pris la direction au moment de la mort de l'ancien Directeur, M. JOSEPH P. SMITH, le 5 février 1898. M. SMITH n'a été que quelques mois Directeur du Bureau. Sa mort prématurée, en privant cette administration de ses services, a coupé court à l'exécution des plans qu'il avait conçus et en partie exécutés, dans le but d'étendre le plan et l'utilité pratique du travail que la Conférence Internationale Américaine avait en vue en établissant le Bureau en 1890. Les détails des projets de M. SMITH sont clairement exposés dans le rapport annuel préparé sous sa direction, mais qui n'a jamais reçu son approbation formelle—je l'ai présenté au comité le 28 février dernier, parce qu'il renfermait en substance ses vues, comme je l'ai dit dans ma communication de cette date. Ce rapport donne un résumé soigneux du travail du Bureau jusqu'à la date de ma nomination comme Directeur Provisoire par le Ministre des Affaires Etrangères avec l'approbation du Comité Exécutif.

Le rapport a été publié avec l'autorisation du Congrès des Etats-Unis, et par conséquent il m'est inutile de revenir sur ses conclusions. Toutefois je suis très heureux de pouvoir dire que j'ai pu faire avancer, autant que possible dans les conditions existantes, les projets auxquels l'ancien Directeur attachait le plus d'importance. Parmi ceux-là figurait l'achèvement d'un Annuaire de Commerce des Républiques Américaines, en deux volumes, comprenant en tout 2,643 pages de matière descriptive et statistique, soigneusement préparée, exposant les ressources naturelles, les industries, le commerce et les lois existantes au point de vue de l'agriculture, et des entreprises commerciales dans tous les pays de l'Hémisphère Occidental, avec des listes de noms de commerçants et de fabricants dans chaque pays, que l'on croyait spécialement intéressés dans le développement des relations commerciales parmi les différentes contrées. On a achevé le second volume (1,589 pages) en novembre dernier, et l'on a commencé la distribution des exemplaires du deuxième volume le 24 novembre 1898, un an environ après la publication du premier volume. On croit que ce travail, conçu entièrement par l'ancien Directeur, est unique dans son plan et son exactitude générale, et qu'on le trouvera d'une grande valeur pratique, non seulement dans les maisons de commerce faisant des affaires avec l'Amérique Latine ou qui désirent en faire, mais aussi comme livre de références pour tous ceux qui cherchent des informations relatives au développement commercial et industriel des Républiques Américaines et des possessions coloniales des Indes Occidentales et autres de cet hémisphère. Le Bureau doit surtout des remerciements à l'Association Nationale des Fabricants et au Musée Commercial de Philadelphie pour les conseils et l'aide qui lui ont été donnés en compilant les listes de commerçants du second volume de l'Annuaire de Commerce qui traite des Etats-Unis.

Un autre projet auquel l'ancien Directeur tenait beaucoup, ainsi que son rapport le fait voir, était le développement de l'utilité du Bureau selon les lignes qui le recommanderaient aux

maisons commerciales des Républiques de l'Amérique Latine comme une agence pratique pour vaincre les obstacles en vue de resserrer les relations commerciales avec les Etats-Unis et la création de nouveaux débouchés de commerce. Je suis heureux de pouvoir dire qu'on a fait un progrès sensible dans cette voie et je puis répéter hautement ce que disait l'ancien Directeur dans son rapport annuel pour 1897: "Le Bureau doit une grande partie de sa croissance récente à la participation plus vigilante et plus active de ceux qui représentent à Washington les différentes Républiques intéressées." A la fin de l'année 1898 le Bureau se trouve dans la position encourageante d'avoir le soutien unanime et cordial des représentants diplomatiques de tous les membres de l'Union Internationale, et il est à espérer que les Républiques montreront, pour son travail, un intérêt toujours croissant. Les nombreuses expressions d'appui et d'approbation qu'on peut trouver dans les archives du Bureau justifient pleinement cette attente. Un incident agréable qui confirme ces vues a eu lieu pendant la visite récente du Président de Costa Rica qui, après avoir examiné ses travaux, exprima son approbation et son intention de contribuer par tous les moyens possibles à son développement.

Le Bureau doit une reconnaissance toute spéciale à l'ancien membre du Comité Exécutif, M. ROMERO, Ministre du Mexique, qui, conformément à la règle établie pour le changement des membres qui a lieu chaque année, s'est retiré du Comité en juin dernier, mais qui a encore continué à montrer beaucoup d'intérêt dans ses affaires; et à l'ancien ministre du Brésil aux Etats-Unis, M. MENDONÇA, qui, dès le commencement du Bureau, lui a donné ses conseils et son soutien zélé. Le Bureau vient d'être honoré par les marques d'intérêt pour son travail de la part du Ministre du Chili, Señor Don CARLOS MORLA VICÚNA, récemment accrédité aux Etats-Unis. Ces marques d'intérêt donnent lieu d'espérer que le Gouvernement du Chili, quoique représenté dans la Conférence Internationale Américaine qui créa le Bureau, n'a jamais

profité du droit qui lui était octroyé d'entrer dans l'Union, se décidera dans un avenir prochain à donner au Bureau son soutien actif.

J'ai eu l'honneur de dire au Comité, à l'occasion de sa réunion le 28 février dernier, que j'avais trouvé les affaires du Bureau dans une condition plus ou moins embarrassante, due à la longue maladie du Directeur, lorsque je me suis chargé de la direction. Les finances étaient aussi dans une condition peu satisfaisante, par suite d'un contrat conclu en novembre 1896, par l'autorité du Comité Exécutif, sous l'administration du prédécesseur de l'ancien Directeur. En approuvant ce contrat, le Comité comptait recevoir au moyen des annonces insérées dans le BULLETIN MENSUEL du Bureau, des revenus suffisants pour couvrir les dépenses de cette publication afin d'améliorer le contenu, et d'en augmenter peu à peu la circulation en vue de faire circuler dans les différents pays des informations relatives aux ressources, aux industries et au commerce de chacun. Le contrat stipulait que l'agent de publicité devait recevoir une commission de 40 pour cent sur la valeur totale provenant des annonces. Comme base de l'exécution heureuse de ces efforts, on avait publié pendant plusieurs mois une édition du BULLETIN, coûtant plus de \$9,000 par mois, soit \$108,000 par an. Le revenu annuel en gros provenant de la publicité s'estimait à \$60,000, mais de cette somme il fallait déduire la commission de 40 pour cent, laissant un solde net de \$36,000.

Attendu que c'était l'habitude de payer les commissions immédiatement, et qu'il fallait attendre pour le remboursement de cette somme que tous les comptes soient acquittés, il était évident, que même si le revenu en perspective était suffisant, un capital considérable serait nécessaire pour faire face aux dépenses immédiates. Le budget annuel du Bureau n'était que de \$28,000 et l'agrandissement de son travail avait nécessité l'emploi d'un plus grand nombre de personnes. En janvier 1898, le Congrès des Etats-Unis a

voté un budget de déficit de \$41,972. A cette époque le Bureau avait encore beaucoup à payer pour des salaires et un nombre de réclamations provenant de ses opérations commerciales, ainsi que du travail augmenté de compilation, de traduction, d'écritures à la machine, etc., de nombreuses publications. Il était évident que le solde restant du budget de déficit suffirait à peine au paiement de ces dépenses et à l'exécution efficace du travail en progrès.

En vue de ces circonstances, j'ai fait entrevoir au Comité Exécutif qu'il serait avantageux de mettre fin au contrat pour la sollicitation d'annonces, moyennant commission, d'autant plus qu'on avait reçu de nombreuses marques de mécontentement de différents endroits à propos de l'entrée en concurrence d'agents d'un bureau, maintenu en partie par le Gouvernement des Etats-Unis, avec les intérêts particuliers s'occupant de la publicité. D'un autre côté, il paraissait possible d'accomplir l'intention originelle du Comité Exécutif afin d'assurer des revenus pour le maintien du BULLETIN MENSUEL sans la sollicitation par des personnes ayant de l'intérêt plus ou moins spéculatif, et sans la concurrence excessive avec les intérêts particuliers, en continuant à offrir aux commerçants et aux fabricants l'emploi des pages du BULLETIN comme moyen de faire connaître les mérites de leurs marchandises dans les marchés qu'ils désiraient atteindre. Le Comité Exécutif a accepté ces conclusions, et m'a nommé Directeur du Bureau pour une période ne dépassant pas l'année fiscale courante, finissant le 30 juin 1898, avec pleins pouvoirs de réorganiser les affaires du Bureau, de résilier les contrats conclus pour la publicité, pour la sollicitation d'abonnements ou autres objets commerciaux qui pourraient me sembler porter préjudice aux intérêts du Bureau, etc., ayant toujours en vue les intérêts généraux de l'Union Internationale et les désirs du Comité.

Avec l'autorité qui m'a été ainsi conférée j'ai notifié immédiatement la résiliation du contrat pour les annonces, et je me suis occupé de la réorganisation du Bureau, ayant en vue de développer

les affaires et de concilier les moyens de commerce qui me sembleraient avantageux dans les limites officielles et les moyens qui étaient à ma disposition.

Le 21 mai 1898, j'ai eu la satisfaction de pouvoir informer le Comité que le résultat des économies faites ainsi avait permis de faire face aux obligations que j'ai trouvées lors de mon entrée au Bureau, obligations se montant à la somme de \$5,000 environ par mois; et voyant cela, j'ai pensé que les ressources du Bureau suffiraient aux exigences, pour le reste de l'année fiscale se terminant le 30 juin 1898. Cet espoir s'est réalisé, et à la fin de ladite année fiscale, il restait un excédant de \$702.78. Les conclusions et les recommandations que j'ai faites dans le rapport à la réunion du 21 mai ont reçu l'approbation du Comité exécutif.

Une autre réunion du Comité Exécutif a eu lieu le 25 juin 1898, à laquelle j'ai annoncé l'expiration prochaine, 30 juin, du terme de ma nomination comme Directeur Provisoire. Le comité, s'étant assuré que les conditions n'exigeaient pas alors la nomination d'un Directeur Permanent, a prolongé mon terme comme Directeur Provisoire jusqu'au 1er octobre, et a affermi de nouveau les pouvoirs spéciaux qu'il m'avait conférés le 28 février. On a encore prolongé le terme aux réunions du 27 septembre et du 26 octobre 1898.

A cette dernière réunion, on a renouvelé indéfiniment la direction provisoire, afin que le Comité ne soit plus obligé de prendre une nouvelle décision jusqu'à ce que les plans en voie d'exécution pour le développement du travail sur une base plus économique soient exécutés.

Les efforts de la direction provisoire ont été nécessairement, en grande partie, consacrés au travail de réorganisation, à l'exécution des projets de l'ancien Directeur, à l'arrangement des demandes et au règlement de plusieurs questions provenant des changements dans les méthodes d'affaires. On a pensé qu'il était bon de ne pas seulement réorganiser les affaires du Bureau, mais aussi de démon-

trer aussi, s'il était possible, la praticabilité d'augmenter son utilité en obtenant un plus grand revenu des annonces et de la vente des publications, obviant ainsi à la nécessité de s'adresser de nouveau au Congrès des Etats-Unis pour une allocation de déficit. On a espéré obtenir ce résultat sans trop retrancher sur les droits des particuliers engagés dans la publicité. Les méthodes employées pour obtenir des annonces dans ces conditions sont très bien expliquées dans les annonces commerciales publiées dans le BULLETIN MENSUEL depuis le 5 février dernier. Les résultats justifient l'espoir que le Bureau recevra l'appui pécuniaire des premières maisons de commerce qui ont un intérêt évident dans le développement des relations commerciales des diverses Républiques Américaines, et que dans un avenir prochain le BULLETIN pourra se passer de l'emploi de sollicitateurs à la commission, ce qui nécessite des avances de fonds sur les recettes non encore rentrées des annonces.

On a renouvelé des contrats pour les annonces se montant au chiffre de \$4,961, et on a reçu de nouveaux contrats pour le montant de \$1,018. Ces résultats, quoique petits en proportion avec le total obtenu sous le dernier régime, donnent une base solide d'encouragement, vu que ces contrats ont été obtenus sans trop de sollicitation et qu'ils donneront au Bureau le montant total de leur valeur. Je n'ai aucun doute que la continuation du présent régime, en ce qui concerne les annonces, placera, en peu de temps, le BULLETIN sur une telle base que sa distribution sera augmentée, le caractère du contenu amélioré, et qu'il pourra faire face à ses dépenses, indépendant des contributions du Gouvernement. Par suite de la distribution gratuite du BULLETIN dans les Etats-Unis, le Bureau a encouru des dépenses qu'à mon avis, ses ressources ne lui permettaient pas, et la distribution gratuite est à présent limitée aux journaux, organisations commerciales, bibliothèques, fonctionnaires du Gouvernement ainsi qu'aux personnes demandant des renseignements spéciaux. Dans ces conditions je me suis cru

autorisé de demander que le Congrès des Etats-Unis vote une allocation pour 5,000 exemplaires du BULLETIN par mois pour la prochaine année fiscale, finissant le 30 juin 1900, afin d'être distribués dans ce pays comme moyen d'encourager et de répandre une meilleure connaissance des ressources et des possibilités commerciales des Républiques de l'Amérique Latine. Une édition de 8,000 exemplaires est distribuée au Mexique, dans l'Amérique Centrale dans l'Amérique du Sud et dans les Indes Occidentales. On pourra faire face, à mon avis, aux dépenses de cette édition, aussi bien qu'à celles des exemplaires qui sont distribués maintenant aux Etats-Unis par les recettes probables des annonces.

Outre la publication du BULLETIN, le travail du Bureau comprend de temps en temps la préparation et l'impression de manuels traitant des différents pays de l'Amérique Latine. Quatre de ces livres ont été finis, et je n'attends que les fonds nécessaires pour leur impression et leur distribution. L'ancien Directeur dans son rapport a attiré l'attention sur le fait que les allocations pour le Bureau n'ont jamais été suffisantes pour faire face aux dépenses d'impression des divers documents demandés d'après le plan de ses opérations suivant ce qui avait été établi par la Conférence Internationale, surtout vu le fait que tous ces documents doivent être imprimés dans la langue du pays dont ils traitent aussi bien qu'en anglais. A ce sujet il dit :

Un examen montrera que les Directeurs précédents du Bureau furent obligés de recourir à divers expédients afin de pouvoir imprimer les publications qui ont paru de temps en temps. Il leur aurait été impossible de le faire avec les ressources dont ils disposaient, et ils ne le firent qu'avec l'autorisation du Congrès des Etats-Unis d'imprimer des manuels divers et autres publications comme documents officiels devant être payés sur les fonds généraux d'imprimerie

Pour faire face à cette difficulté, le dernier Directeur a conseillé à l'Union Internationale de prendre des mesures afin d'assurer au Bureau l'emploi des fonds versés par les autres Républiques, lesquels fonds sont à présent versés à la Trésorerie, et de rembourser cette dernière selon les différentes quotités des pays.

Il a estimé que ceci élèverait cette source de revenu du Bureau à environ \$45,000 ou \$50,000. J'ai pris des mesures pour que cette proposition donne un résultat pratique, et j'ai demandé au Congrès des Etats-Unis d'autoriser la proposition indiquée. On a prié les autres pays de l'Union Internationale de faire savoir s'ils avaient des observations à présenter au sujet du changement proposé, et quatre parmi eux ont déjà répondu en donuant leur acquiescement. Les sommes qu'on a reçues des autres pays ont varié d'une année à l'autre, mais je suis heureux de dire qu'il y a de bonnes raisons pour espérer que cette année les contributions dépasseront grandement la moyenne annuelle. Le Bureau a reçu avis du prompt paiement par cinq des pays de leurs quotités s'élevant à \$5,027.78. Un de ces pays, le Venezuela, a dépassé le montant de \$540.41 pendant l'année fiscale finissant le 30 juin 1898. Cette somme est une augmentation sur les totaux reçus des autres pays de l'Union pendant l'année fiscale précédente, se montant au chiffre de \$4,216.02.

Outre ces diverses publications, le Bureau est activement occupé à donner des renseignements, verbalement ou par correspondance, à ceux qui s'adressent à nous, non seulement des Etats-Unis mais des autres parties du monde, et surtout des pays de l'Union Internationale Américaine. Cette partie du travail a grandi dans de telles proportions que le dernier Directeur a établi un bureau de renseignements dans le but unique de répondre à toutes ces demandes. Ces demandes ont augmenté continuellement, et le Bureau accuse fréquemment réception de lettres d'autres pays de l'Union, demandant le concours du Bureau pour obtenir des renseignements concernant le commerce pratique, ou pour attirer le capital et la coopération des Etats-Unis dans les affaires agricoles, exploitations de mines, industries, et commerce des différents pays. Beaucoup de ces lettres parlent en termes flatteurs du BULLETIN MENSUEL du Bureau, fait, qui indique que cette publication est distribuée et lue partout dans les pays de

l'Amérique Latine, et est reconnue en ce moment comme une des premières publications pour encourager et avancer le commerce. Le Bureau ne répond qu'aux demandes de ceux qui ont une entreprise spéciale, ou qui désirent l'attention des capitalistes des Etats-Unis dans les pages du BULLETIN, et pas avant qu'il soit convaincu par un examen attentif que les projets indiqués sont dignes d'être publiés. Dans le cas où le Bureau ne peut pas prêter son concours, on envoie aux correspondants les adresses des organisations commerciales des Etats-Unis où l'on peut obtenir la coopération ou le capital dans les champs de commerce particulier.

Ces demandes concernent ordinairement les ressources particulières d'agriculture, d'exploitation des mines, des différents pays, la méthode pour obtenir des terrains pour les industries agricoles, pour l'élevage de bétail et pour l'exploitation des mines, les méthodes employées pour la production de sucres, de café, de cacao, de caoutchouc, des fruits des tropiques etc., et les mesures à prendre afin d'acquérir les terrains, soit pour des particuliers, soit pour entreprendre des affaires sur une grande échelle. On fait fréquemment des demandes de renseignements concernant les droits d'entrée imposés par les tarifs des différents pays sur les articles particuliers ou sur les classes de marchandises, les paiements et les règlements de port, les statistiques des exportations et des importations, et les conditions imposées par les lois d'un pays sur les industries et sur le commerce, les noms des fonctionnaires du Gouvernement, à qui on doit s'adresser à propos des sujets particuliers, etc. On reçoit beaucoup de lettres de l'Amérique Latine, et ces lettres augmentent tous les jours, pour demander des renseignements concernant les marchés aux Etats-Unis pour les produits de l'Amérique du Sud et le genre de marchandises produites et fabriquées aux Etats-Unis que l'on pourrait accepter en échange, les noms des importateurs et exportateurs intéressés dans le commerce de l'Amérique Latine et d'autres renseignements qui indiquent un grand désir de cultiver des relations plus intimes.

D'après la recommandation de l'ancien Directeur dans son rapport présenté au Comité Exécutif en février dernier, le Bureau fut représenté à l'Exposition Internationale Trans-Mississippienne à Omaha, Nebraska, fermée le 31 octobre dernier. On trouvera un rapport fait par l'agent du Bureau à l'Exposition dans le *BULLETIN MENSUEL* aux pages 777-779. Ce rapport indique que les produits exposés ont non seulement démontré la grande utilité du Bureau aux habitants des Etats-Unis, mais aussi a attiré l'attention sur les possibilités industrielles et commerciales du Mexique, des Républiques de l'Amérique Centrale, de l'Amérique du Sud, et des Indes Occidentales. Le dernier Directeur a aussi conseillé que le Bureau soit représenté à l'Exposition de Paris en 1900, aussi bien qu'aux expositions projetées dans les différents pays de l'Union Internationale. Tant que ma direction n'a été que provisoire, je ne me suis pas trouvé autorisé à faire des projets pour l'exécution de ces recommandations, et je les ai soumis respectueusement à la considération du Comité Exécutif.

Ci-joint, je vous envoie un exposé des finances du Bureau pour l'année fiscale finissant le 30 juin 1898; et aussi pour la période comprise entre ma nomination, le 5 février dernier et le premier du mois courant, ainsi que des exemplaires du *BULLETIN MENSUEL* publiés pendant l'année dernière contenant des annonces du progrès continuel des affaires du Bureau.

Je suis très heureux de renouveler, moi-même, les expressions de reconnaissance de l'ancien Directeur aux membres du Comité Exécutif, et je puis ajouter aussi, aux représentants de tous les pays de l'Union Internationale, pour leur concours dans la direction des affaires du Bureau et leur appui cordial pour augmenter son utilité.

J'ai l'honneur d'être, Messieurs, votre obéissant serviteur.

FRÉDÉRIC EMORY,

Directeur.

RECETTES.

1^{er} juillet 1897 au 30 juin 1898.

Allocations:		
Annuelle, 1898	\$28,000.00	
Déficit, 1898	41,972.00	
		\$69,972.00
Annonces		32,051.41
Ventes:		
Annuaire de Commerce	16,681.50	
Autres publications	5,904.14	
		22,585.64
Total		124,609.05
Dépenses		123,906.27
Excédent, 1 ^{er} juillet 1898..		702.78

DÉPENSES.

1^{er} juillet 1897 au 30 juin 1898.

	Payées par le caissier du Ministère des Affaires Etrangères.		Payées par le Directeur du Bureau* des recettes provenant de ventes, loyers, etc.	Total.
	De l'allocation 1898.	Des recettes provenant de ventes, loyers, etc.		
Compensation	\$37,999.69	\$8,184.58	\$3,908.16	\$50,092.43
Papeterie	6,968.95	964.69	781.00	8,714.64
Loyer du Bureau	1,666.66	833.35		2,500.01
Commissions	5,884.70	5,200.00	13,105.80	24,190.50
Dépenses de la succursale à New York	360.83	553.43	2,065.63	2,979.89
Machines à écrire	1,086.07			1,086.07
Ameublement, réparations, etc..	1,191.65	165.79		1,357.44
Timbres	778.00		450.00	1,228.00
Bibliothèque	89.12	241.61	100.60	431.33
Télégrammes	731.62	127.91	96.46	955.99
Imprimerie	7,636.01	11,773.94	1,000.00	20,409.95
Cartes	2,714.34		206.25	2,920.59
Téléphone	263.96	62.50		326.46
Dépenses diverses	2,547.44	2,314.45	1,851.08	6,712.97
Total	69,919.04	30,422.25	23,564.98	123,906.27

* Le Directeur n'a fait aucun paiement depuis le 5 février 1898, sauf sur la présentation de bons tirés sur le caissier du Ministère des Affaires Etrangères contre l'allocation ou les recettes provenant de ventes, loyers, etc., qu'on dépose promptement au Trésor des Etats-Unis.

88 RAPPORT ANNUEL DU BUREAU DES RÉPUBLIQUES AMÉRICAINES.

5 février 1898 au 30 juin 1898.

	Payées par le caissier au Ministère des Affaires Étrangères de l'allocation 1898.	Payées par le caissier, recettes, etc.	Total.
Compensation	\$19,476. 57	\$514. 61	\$19,991. 18
Papeterie	3,666. 10	13. 69	3,679. 79
Loyer du Bureau	666. 66	333. 34	1,000. 00
Commissions sur contrat antérieurement au 1 ^{er} mars 1898		5,200. 00	5,200. 00
Dépenses, succursale à New York	335. 83	553. 45	889. 28
Ameublement	555. 61		555. 61
Bibliothèque	32. 12	145. 69	177. 81
Télégrammes	602. 80		602. 80
Imprimerie	6,142. 38	10,750. 26	16,892. 64
Cartes	2,347. 50		2,347. 50
Téléphone	97. 02		97. 02
Dépenses diverses	1,522. 28	1,684. 97	3,207. 25
Total	35,444. 87	19,196. 01	54,640. 88

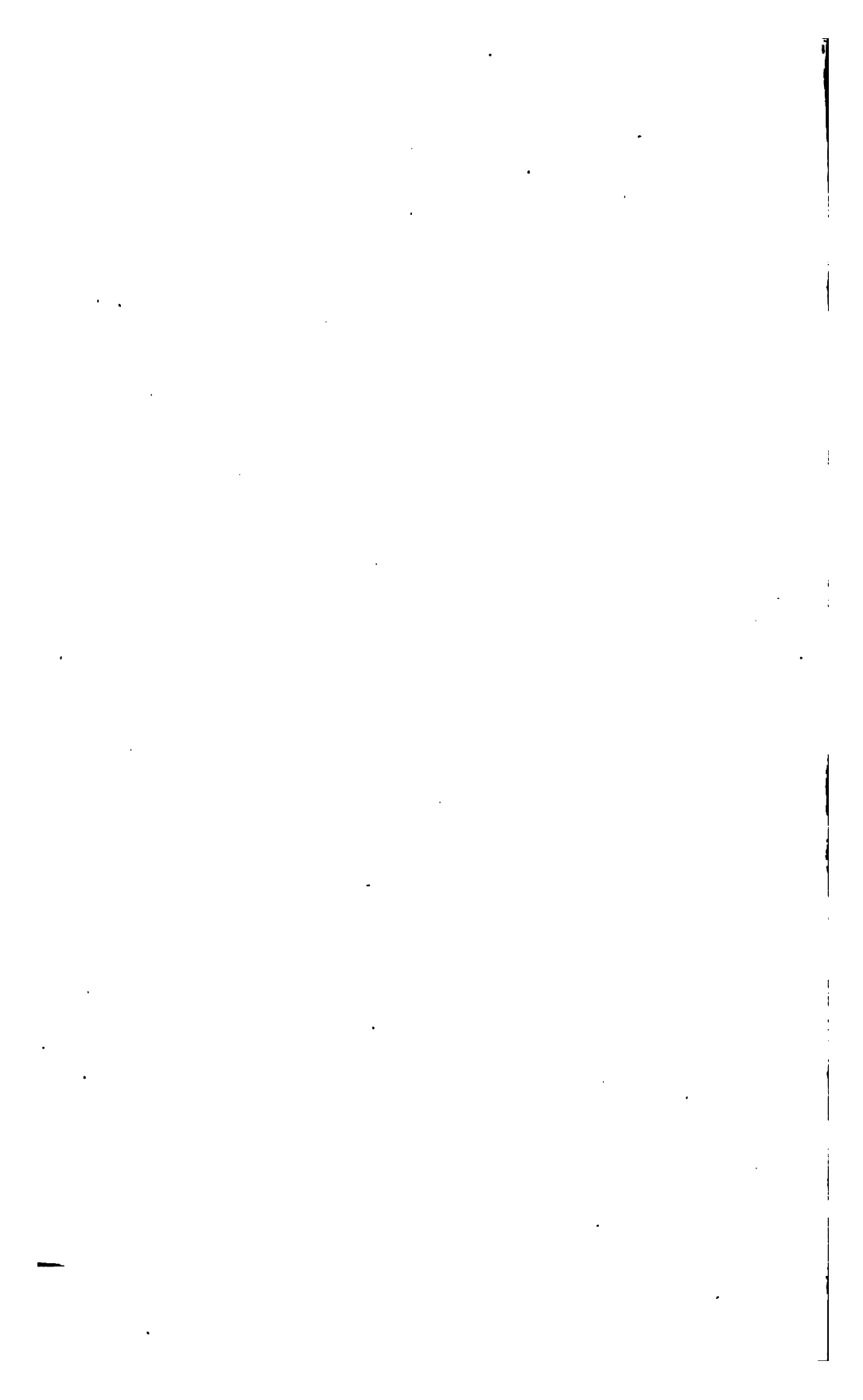
Recettes et dépenses totales du 1^{er} juillet 1898 au 30 novembre 1898.

Allocation annuelle	\$36,000. 00	
Dépenses	19,430. 79	
Excédent, 1 ^{er} décembre 1898		\$16,569. 21
Recettes provenant de ventes, loyer, etc.:		
Excédent, 1 ^{er} juillet 1898	649. 82	
D'annonces	\$16,444. 70	
De ventes:		
Annuaire de Commerce	\$260. 00	
Autres publications	457. 83	
	717. 83	
	17,162. 53	
Dépenses	17,812. 35	
	16,078. 85	
Excédant, 1 ^{er} décembre 1898		1,733. 50
Valeur de la publicité, 1 ^{er} décembre 1898		16,500. 00
Comptes non acquittés		8,000. 00
Ressources totales du Bureau, 1 ^{er} décembre 1898		42,802. 71

DÉPENSES.

1^{er} juillet 1898 au 30 novembre 1898.

	De l'allocation 1899.	De recettes provenant de ventes, loyers, etc.	Total.
Compensation	\$14, 830. 44	\$2, 743. 54	\$17, 573. 98
Papeterie.....	85. 80	52. 41	138. 21
Loyer	833. 33	833. 33
Imprimerie	3, 279. 25	9, 456. 36	12, 735. 61
Timbres	153. 17	266. 00	419. 17
Bibliothèque	36. 50	11. 25	47. 75
Commissions sous contrat antérieurement au 1 ^{er} mars 1898.....	2, 375. 18	2, 375. 18
Téléphone.....	33. 75	33. 75	67. 50
Dépenses diverses	178. 55	1, 140. 36	1, 318. 91
Total	19, 430. 79	16, 078. 85	35, 509. 64



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SAP 24.2

BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS,

WASHINGTON, D. C., U. S. A.

VENEZUELA.

PART I.

BULLETIN No. 93—IN TWO PARTS:

Part I—ENGLISH.

Part II—SPANISH.

REVISED EDITION, 1899.



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BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS,
WASHINGTON, D. C., U. S. A.

VENEZUELA.

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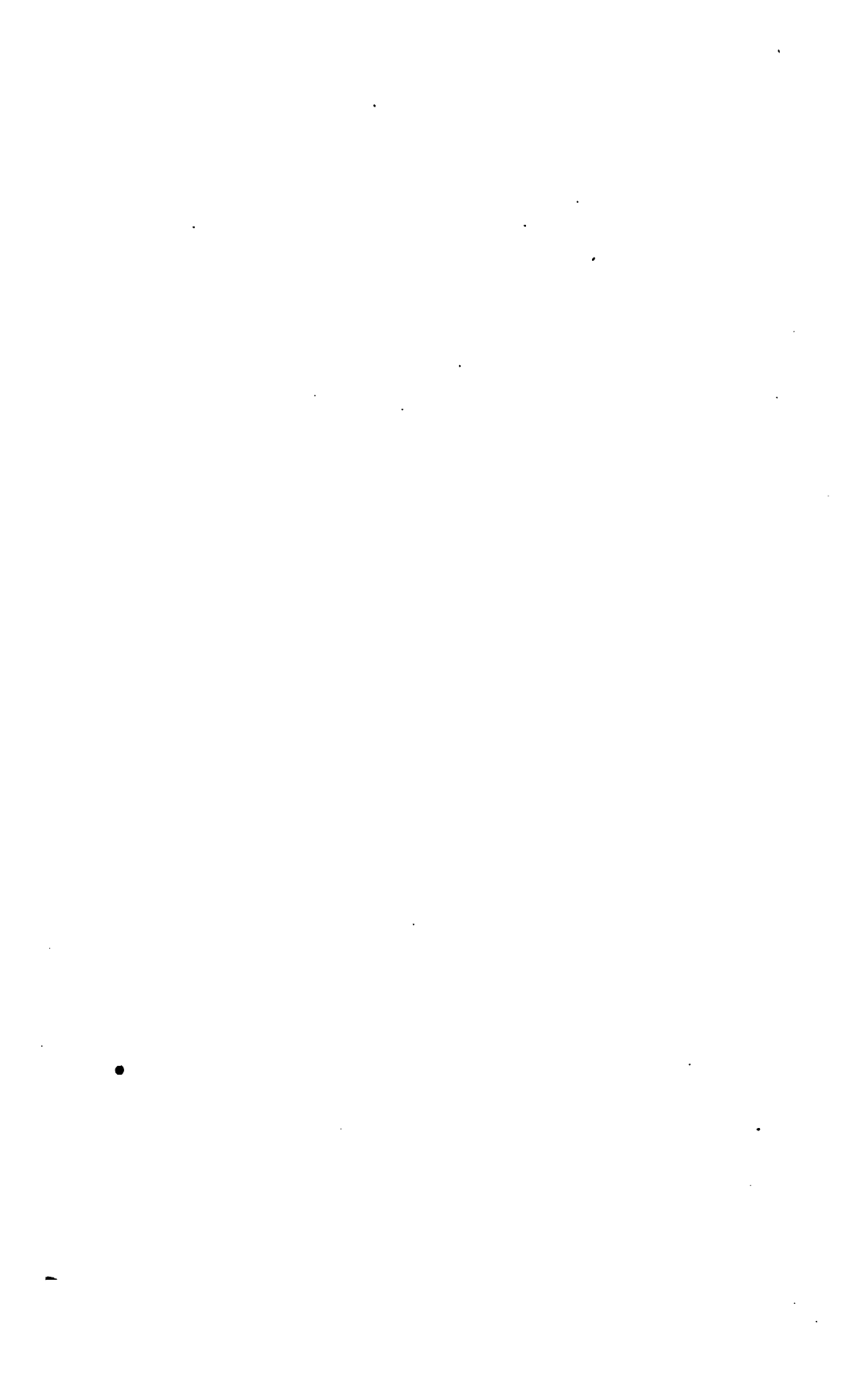
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*Bureau of the American
Republics*

NOTICE.

Owing to the changes that have lately occurred in the political division of the Republic by the constitutional subdivision of the several federal sections, and in view of the fact that no official maps embodying these changes have been published, it has been deemed expedient not to append to this Handbook the Map of Venezuela. The only one available for the purpose (Statistical Annuary for 1889) has an historical value only. A list of the best-known maps of Venezuela is found in the section of the Handbook relating to Venezuelan Bibliography.



VENEZUELA.

I.

GEOGRAPHICAL SKETCH—AREA AND POPULATION.

The Republic of the United States of Venezuela occupies the central portion of the northern extremity of South America and lies within the torrid zone between 12° 26' latitude north and 1° 40' latitude south, and between 10° 20' east and 6° 50' west longitude from the meridian of Caracas. The country was discovered by Christopher Columbus, who, while on his third voyage, sighted the stretch of land between Punta de Araya and Boca de Dragos, according to some writers, on the 31st of July, and according to others on the 1st of August, 1498.

Venezuela is bounded on the north by the Caribbean or Antillean Sea, on the south by the United States of Brazil and a part of the Republic of Colombia, on the west by Colombia, and on the east by the Atlantic Ocean and British Guiana.¹

The British Guiana boundaries have been the subject of a long controversy between the Republic and Great Britain. Through the efficient intervention of the United States the dispute has been submitted to an arbitration tribunal, which is to meet in Paris pursuant to the treaty signed in Washington in 1897.

The area of Venezuela, including the territory in dispute with bordering nations, is 1,552,741 square kilometers²—that is to say, an area greater than that of France, Germany, and the Netherlands combined, or than the aggregate area of the States of Texas, Colorado, Idaho, and California.

Baron Humboldt, who explored Venezuela at the beginning of the century, considered from the information he collected from good sources that the population of Venezuela, then a Spanish colony governed by a captain-general, did not exceed 802,100 souls.

The slaughter of the devastating war of independence, which lasted until 1824, was the cause of a great decrease in the population. So that by the year 1825, when peace and order were reestablished in the

¹ See chapter devoted to the boundary question.

² 1 kilometer is equal to 0.62137 mile.

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BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN REPUBLICS,

WASHINGTON, D. C., U. S. A.

VENEZUELA.

PART I.

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There are numberless mesas, particularly in the former State of Bermúdez, the principal being Guanipa, Urica, Amana, and Tonero.

The geological formation of the mountains in Venezuela is, in the main, of granite and gneiss, but in some few localities calcareous rocks are found. In the valleys and plains the soil is covered by detritus carried from the mountains by the rains.

Solid granite abounds in the regions east of the great bend of the Orinoco River, where the soil is generally barren. In the mountain ranges of the Orinoco and in those forming the agricultural zone or belt gneiss predominates. The vegetable soil is exceptionally rich in this zone, where it sometimes attains the depth of 2 meters.

The Andes range is mainly formed of Plutonic rocks, granite, and gneiss, but frequently large marble beds are found in the mountains. The soil on both sides is of Neptunian origin.

COASTS AND WATER BASINS.

According to the latest official data the coast line of Venezuela extends 3,020 kilometers along the Caribbean Sea and the Atlantic Ocean, and has 32 harbors, 50 coves, and numberless anchorages, exclusive of those in the interior on the lakes of Maracaibo and Valencia.

The eight extensive water basins into which the Republic may be divided are the following:

Water basins.	Extent in square miles.	Water basins.	Extent in square miles.
Orinoco	366,587	Lake Maracaibo	68,490
Rio Negro	38,750	Lake Valencia	1,782
Cuyuni	61,048	Coast watershed	48,256
Gulf Cariaco	2,723	Total	509,533
Gulf Paria	11,897		

GULFS.

There are five gulfs, the principal of which is Gulf Maracaibo, also called Gulf of Venezuela, formed by the Goajira and Paraguaná peninsulas and the coasts of Zulia and Falcón; Gulf of Paria or Triste, between the Paria Peninsula, the eastern coast of the State of Bermúdez, and the northern mouths of the Orinoco; the Gulf of Coro, formed by the Paraguaná Peninsula, the isthmus of the same name, and the coasts of the continent, which gulf communicates with that of Maracaibo; the Cariaco Gulf between the Araya Peninsula and the

coasts of the continent, and the small Gulf of Santa Fe, on the northern coast of the old State of Bermúdez.

Sailing charts mention another Golfo Triste between the ports of Borburata, Puerto Cabello, and Point Chichiriviche, within which lie the San Juan Keys and the port of Tucacas, terminus of the railroad of the Aroa mines, also called Southeastern Railroad, which runs as far as Barquisimeto. It is from this port that the copper ore of the English company operating the Aroa mines, brought on the narrow-gauge railroad, is shipped for export.

LAKES.

The most important lakes in the country are Lake Maracaibo, having an area of 21,728 square kilometers, and Lake Valencia, also called Tacarigua, 559 square kilometers in extent.

There are 204 small lakes in Venezuela, Lake Zulia covering an area of 750 square kilometers, and Lake Laguneta, also in the state of Zulia, 500 square kilometers in extent. Lake Tacarigua has a circumference of 85 kilometers, and Lake Camaguán, in the State of Guárico; covers an area of 240 square kilometers. Fish and game abound in and around all of them.

ISLANDS.

The 71 islands belonging to Venezuela are divided as follows: The former State of Miranda, now forming the States of Rivas, Miranda, and Guárico, and Territory of Colón, 14; area, 625 square miles. State of Carabobo, 4; area, 12 square miles. The old State of Bermúdez, now forming the States of Barcelona and Sucre, 25; area, 204 square miles. State of Falcón, 16; area, 170 square miles; and 12 islands in the Orinoco Delta, which cover an area of 14,633 square miles. Of these islands the only one of real importance is the Island of Margarita or Nueva Esparta, celebrated at the time of the conquest for its pearl fisheries.

RIVER SYSTEM.

The territory of Venezuela is bathed by 1,047 rivers and rivulets, of which 436 are affluents of the Orinoco. Two hundred and thirty flow into the Caribbean Sea, 24 into the Gulf of Paria, 120 into Lake Maracaibo, and 22 are tributaries of Lake Valencia. The Orinoco, Apure, Meta, Caura, Negro, and Guárico rivers are the principal streams of the country and are navigable by large vessels. The Orinoco, into which all the other great rivers flow, is navigable as far as Los Atures.

The innumerable tributaries of the Orinoco feeding it from the west are the highways whereby the rich products of the interior of Colombia, inaccessible on the Pacific Ocean side, reach the interior of Venezuela. Toward the south the waters of the Orinoco, through navigable tributaries, commingle with those of the Amazon by means of the Casiquiare Creek and the Negro River, so that in this direction the material wealth of another vast inland territory finds an outlet to the ocean.

The Orinoco, the third river in importance in America and the largest in Venezuela, rises in the Parima Range and empties, through 17 principal mouths, forming a delta of over 7,722 square miles, into the Atlantic Ocean. The length of the river is 1,475 miles, of which over 1,200 are navigable. As is evident, this is the principal waterway furnishing an outlet for the products of the country to foreign markets, and on it a regular import traffic is carried on to satisfy the necessities of that part of the Republic, and even of Colombia. Through Ciudad Bolívar, capital of the State of the same name and principal port of the Orinoco, are exported the gold from the rich mines of Guiana, all the products of the State, and a great part of those of the neighboring regions belonging to the States of Barcelona and Sucre, Zamora, Rivas, Miranda, and Guárico, and the Territory of Amazonas.

The Apure and Portuguesa rivers are plowed by steam and sailing vessels carrying on the trade between Ciudad Bolívar, Caicara, San Fernando de Apure, Nutrias, Arauca, Camaguán, and Baúl. Vessels also go up the Orinoco and reach Colombia by means of the Meta River.

The Guárico River, which is the principal stream of the former State of Miranda, rises in the interior mountain range and flows into the Orinoco. It has a length of 372 miles, over half of which are navigable. The source of the Orituco is in the same range; it is 250 miles in length, and 125 of them are navigable. The Tuy, which rises in the Coast Range, empties into the Caribbean Sea. Its course is navigable for more than 62 miles, and its extreme length exceeds 186. The Manapire, which rises in the inland range and empties into the Orinoco, has a length of 186 miles, 37 of which are navigable. The Tiznado, which flows into the Portuguesa River, is navigable during the rainy season for about 62 miles, its full course being nearly double this length.

The Tigre, Guanipa, Unare, and Guarapiche rivers, in the State of Bermúdez, are navigable in part.

In the State of Lara, the Tocuyo River, which rises in the snowy summit of the Cabimbú and empties into the Caribbean Sea, has a

length of 310 miles, 50 of which in this State and 93 in the State of Falcón are navigable. The Yaracuy, 31 miles in length, is navigable from the borders of the State of Carabobo. The Tocuyo as well as the Aroa flow through the State of Falcón in their course toward the Caribbean Sea, where they empty, and they are navigable in part.

The Catatumbo River, which comes from Colombia and flows into Lake Maracaibo, belongs to the State of Zulia. It has a length of 186 miles, 125 of which are navigable. The Zulia, which also has its source in Colombia, empties into the Catatumbo, and of its 186 miles of length 125 are navigable. The Motatán, Escalante, and Locúí are also navigable. The first of these three rivers rises in the eternally snow-clad peak of Muechies, in the State of Los Andes, and flows into Lake Maracaibo. It is 186 miles in length, about 62 of which are navigable—6 in this State and 56 in that of Zulia.

The Portuguesa River, in the State of Zamora, has its source in the Lara Andes and discharges into the Apure. Its length is 310 miles, 186 of these being navigable. The Boconó, Guanare, Caparro, Suripa, Uribante, Santo Domingo, Pagúey, Canaguá, Masparro, and Cojedes rivers are also partly navigable, and many of them flow into the Apure.

There are in the State of Bolívar the Apure River, formed by the Uribante and the Sarare, which rise in the Andean Range (the first flows into the Orinoco); of its full course of 738 miles, 625 are navigable; the Meta and the Arauca, which rise in Colombia, are navigable, the former for 497 miles and the latter for 373 miles, the total length of each being 560 and 497 miles, respectively; the Caroní and the Caura, which empty into the Orinoco and which are navigable, the former for 497 miles and the latter for 373; the Cuyuni, 560 miles in length, of which 373 are navigable, flows into the Esequibo; the Paragua, navigable for 310 miles, and the Mazaruni, 310 miles in length and navigable for 186.

In the Territory of Amazonas there are the Orinoco and the Meta, already described, the Guaviare, the Guaima, which comes from Colombia and takes the name of Rio Negro upon joining the Casiquiare, flows on to Brazil and discharges into the Amazon; the Ventuario and the Casiquiare Creek, which, leaving the Orinoco, terminates in the Rio Negro.

From the foregoing it is seen that the fluvial system of Venezuela is the most important on the continent, and presents a wide field for the exploitation of the innumerable natural resources in which the country abounds.

CLIMATE AND SEASONS.

Nature seems to have been prodigal with Venezuela, for she has not only endowed her with great rivers, which bathe and fertilize her soil; with immense plains, where live stock flourishes; with extensive virgin forests, where may be found all kinds of cabinet and building woods, with minerals, etc., but she has given her a climate so benign that the inhabitants of any portion of the world may find in Venezuela the temperature best adapted to their necessities and modes of life, permitting them to cultivate the products of all the zones, from those of the cold climates of the north to those of the equatorial region. The territory of Venezuela is divided into three zones, the temperature of which varies in proportion to the elevation above the sea. Following the nomenclature of the country, these zones may be classified as the cold, temperate, and warm. Between the eighth and ninth degrees of latitude are the snow-clad elevations. At the height of 13,569 feet above the sea the snow line begins, although occasionally the snow thaws at a height of 14,848 feet, an elevation which is in the limits of perpetual snow, which is to be seen on the highest mountain peaks of Mérida, reaching an altitude of 15,026 feet above sea level. Above the level of 14,848 feet all vegetation ceases, and nothing is to be found but moss and weeds, covered with snow. The temperature of this region is from 2° to 3° C. above zero (35° to 37° F.). The temperate lands are situated at altitudes varying between 1,918 and 7,034 feet above the sea, the temperature being between 18° and 25° C. (64° to 77° F.). In this belt one may choose the climate best adapted to the health or the mode of life of each individual. The warm zone is to be found from the level of the sea to an elevation of 1,918 feet, the temperature here varying between 25° 50' and 32° 67' C. (78° to 90° F.).

The extremes of heat and cold of northern climates are unknown in Venezuela. The mountain or land breezes and the trade or east winds largely contribute to temper the atmosphere at the seaports and all points on the coast.

Neither the black vomit nor yellow fever is considered epidemic on the coasts of Venezuela, and although occasional sporadic cases of malignant fevers are not unknown, they are not frequent, nor do they assume the form and character of those known to New Orleans, Havana, and Vera Cruz.

The climate of Macuto, 2 miles distant from the port of La Guaira, and of Antímano, 3 miles from Caracas, both places maintaining rapid and frequent communication by rail, is especially adapted to those

suffering with pulmonary complaints. El Valle, 2 miles from Caracas, whose streams run through the thick undergrowth abounding at their sources, is favored with an excellent temperature for stomach and liver complaints.

One of the most eminent physicians of Caracas considered the temperature of Macuto the best adapted to stay the course of lung troubles and the climate of Antímano as beneficial to asthmatics. The healthfulness of the climate of Venezuela may be evidenced by the number of persons reaching or passing the age of 100 years, as compared with the vital statistics of other countries.

Properly speaking, there are in Venezuela only two seasons—the dry and the rainy, or summer and winter. The former commences when the sun enters the tropic of Capricorn and the latter when it comes into the tropic of Cancer. Hence the rainy season is from April to October. During these months the temperature rises most. During the remainder of the year the air is fresh and the climate generally mild and agreeable. In the dry season, or summer, the prevailing winds are from the northeast, and they also blow freshly from the north and northwest, being more frequent in November and December than in February and March. Showers sometimes fall during these months also, not as heavy as in winter, known by the name of “nortes” (northers). The prevailing winds of the torrid zone blow over Venezuela, and vary between the south and east in winter.

Temperature of the principal cities and towns of Venezuela.

Cities and towns.	Maximum.		Minimum.		Mean.	
	Cent.	Fahr.	Cent.	Fahr.	Cent.	Fahr.
Federal District:						
Caracas	29	84.2	9	48.2	19	66.2
Macuto	32.50	90	26	78.8	29.25	85
Antímano	28	83.2	8.75	47	18.37	65
State of Miranda:¹						
Ciudad de Cura	30.50	87	22.50	72	26.50	79
La Guaira	32.50	90	26	78.8	29	84.2
Los Teques	26	78.8	8.50	47	17.25	63
La Victoria	31.50	88	20	68	25.75	77
Petare	29	84.2	17	62.6	23	73.4
Asunción (Nueva Esparta)	30	86	23	73.4	26.50	79
State of Carabobo:						
Valencia	30.50	87	19	66.2	24.75	76
Montalbán	26	78.8	18.50	65	22.25	72
Bejuma	25.50	78	18.50	65	22	71.6
Nirgua	25	77	18	64.4	21.50	70

¹State of Miranda, now forming the States of Rivas, Guárico, and Miranda.

Temperature of the principal cities and towns of Venezuela—Continued.

Cities and towns.	Maximum.		Minimum.		Mean.	
State of Bermúdez: ¹	<i>Cent.</i>	<i>Fahr.</i>	<i>Cent.</i>	<i>Fahr.</i>	<i>Cent.</i>	<i>Fahr.</i>
Barcelona	31.40	88	23.50	74	27.45	81
Cumaná.....	31.50	88.1	23.50	74	27.50	81.1
Maturín	30.50	87	24.50	76	27.50	81.1
State of Bolívar:						
Ciudad Bolívar	33	91.4	24	75.2	28.50	83
San Fernando.....	32	89.6	29	84.2	30.50	87
State of Zamora:						
Guanare	32.50	90	25	77	28.75	83
Barinas	31.50	88	24	75.2	27.75	81
San Carlos	32.50	90	24	75.2	28.25	82.6
Ospino	31	87.8	24.50	76 *	27.75	81
Araure.....	31	87.8	24.50	76	27.75	81
State of Lara:						
Barquisimeto	29	84.2	22	71.6	25.50	78
San Felipe	30	86	24	75.2	27	80.6
Tocuyo	28.50	83	23	73.4	25.75	78.4
Quibor	29.50	85	24	75.2	26.75	79
Yaritagua	30	86	24	75.2	27	80.6
State of Zulia:						
Maracaibo	32	89.6	23	73.4	27.50	81
Perija.....	31	87.8	44.25	76	27.62	81.1
State of Falcón:						
Coro	32.50	90	23.50	74	28	82.4
Cumarebo.....	29.50	85	23	73.4	26.25	79
State of Los Andes: ²						
Mérida.....	23.53	74	8.75	47	16.14	61
Mucuchies	20	68	6.75	43	13.37	56
San Cristóbal	25	77	17	62.6	21	69.8
Lobatera	22	71.6	15	59	18.50	65
Ejido	20.89	69	8.25	45	14.57	58
Balladores.....	21	69.8	10	50	15.50	60
Trujillo	26	78.8	18.50	65	22.25	72
Boconó	21.50	70	15	59	18.25	64.8
Territories of Alto Orinoco and Amazonas:						
San Fernando de Atabapo.....	29	84.2	23	73.4	26	78.8
Yavita	28.50	50.83	23	73.4	25.75	78
Maroa	28.50	50.83	22.50	72	25.50	76
San Carlos de Río Negro	29.50	85	23	73.4	26.25	79

¹State of Bermúdez, now forming the States of Barcelona and Sucre.²State of Los Andes, now forming the States of Los Andes and Trujillo.

AGRICULTURAL, GRAZING, AND FOREST BELTS.

At the beginning of this chapter the statement was made that the territory of Venezuela was divided into three zones or belts, the agri-

cultural lands, the grazing lands, and the forest or wild lands, thus described in the Statistical Annual for 1896:

In the agricultural belt, coffee, cacao, sugar cane, all kinds of cereals and edible tubers, such as the potato, yucca, yam, etc., grow in abundance over an area of 13,350 square miles, of which barely 600 are cultivated, according to the official statistics.

The forest lands are found from the Gulf of Paria, at the end of the eastern coast, up to Maracaibo, the westernmost point. Spacious and extensive fields lie uncultivated in the Yaracuy, Aroa, and Tucacas regions; the thick and far-reaching forests of San Camilo, in the vicinity of the Colombian frontier; the great Nutrias meadows; the Turen forest, almost in the heart of Venezuela, crossed by natural canals, affording easy access to the navigable rivers.

The grazing country, covered with a growth adapted to the profitable raising of cattle and domestic animals, reproducing itself in the most surprising manner, resembles the pampas of the rich and fruitful Argentine Republic. Justly praising it, Colonel Codazzi, cited by the *Anuario Estadístico*, says that "It looks like a great gulf which reaches into the interior of the land, or a sea of grass which forms the horizon on all sides, shut in by the high Cordilleras and the immense forests of Guiana. It is the true cattle range, where cattle multiply almost without the care of man. It is the great breeding ground which furnishes the agricultural lands the working animals and the beef for the food of their inhabitants."

The pastoral belt extends from the east to the west 600 miles, from the town of Barracas, a settlement situated on the high western bank of the Orinoco River, apex of the delta, up to the savannas which the Sarare River overflows on the frontier of Colombia, formerly New Granada. In the south it covers an average area of 300 miles, from the vicinity of the Vichada river to the Pao mountain range in the State of Carabobo.

This belt covers an area of 27,000 square miles, whose savannas or pampas are distributed as follows: 5,937 square miles in the States of Barcelona and Sucre; 6,819 in the States of Rivas, Guárico, Miranda, and Carabobo; 3,900 in the State of Zamora, and 10,344 in the State of Bolívar.

The third belt—the forestal—comprises innumerable virgin tracts of timber growth, whose natural products are easily obtainable in quantity sufficient to accumulate wealth.

In certain localities of Guiana abound the *sarrapia* (*dipteryx odorata*), and the tree producing copaiba, or *cabimba*, and everywhere may be

found the sarsaparilla, precious woods for building and cabinet work, a diversity of balsams, gums, and medicinal plants. The mulberry, or *fustete*, Brazil and Campeche woods and other dyewoods are found in the forests in great abundance, as also the rubber tree, the *chiquichi*, which is the local name of a vegetable fiber the natives use in making rope. Several varieties of fibers abound. From the barks of several plants excellent fibers are extracted, such as the *majagua*, the native name applied to the tree whose bark is used for rope making and other purposes; the most abundant *gamelote*, or *gramalote*, as well as the fiber of the banana, which are profitably employed in paper making.

According to the most recent official data, the public lands in 1890 extended over an area of 226,102 square kilometers, from which should be deducted 33 square kilometers sold up to 1894, leaving a total of 226,069 square kilometers.

The grazing lands in 1890 had an area of 150,027 square kilometers, which in 1894 had been reduced to 148,143 square kilometers by the sale of 1,894 square kilometers.

The wild lands contained 785,591 square kilometers.

The total amount of land held by private parties is as follows:

In the agricultural section, 123,419 square kilometers; in the grazing section, 257,180; and in the wild section, 12,349.

II.

HISTORICAL SKETCH—LA NUEVA CADIZ.

Although it is beyond doubt that the discovery of a part of the coast of Venezuela toward the east, between Point Araya and Boca de Dragos, was made by Christopher Columbus on his third voyage in 1498, there is no evidence of any landing prior to that made in 1510 on the small island of Cubagua, situated in the channel between the island of Margarita and the mainland, where was founded the first settlement known as New Cadiz. In the course of time it became a place of rendezvous and a nest of pirates, who persecuted the natives and sold them as slaves on the neighboring islands. A short time afterwards New Cadiz disappeared and Cubagua was abandoned, remaining uninhabited to the present day.

Ten years later, in 1520, the city of Cumaná was founded on the southern coast of the Gulf of Cariaco, and it is the oldest city on the American Continent.

THE ISLAND OF MARGARITA.

Subsequently, in 1825, Asunción, the capital of the Island of Margarita, was founded. It was so called owing to the quantity of pearls that were found on its coast.

The eastern part of the Venezuelan coast, opposite the Island of Margarita, where Cumaná was established, was called New Andalusia by its first colonizers. Although it has been thought that Coro and its port (La Vela) were the most ancient settlements on the mainland, there is no doubt that at the time of the discovery and foundation of both, in 1527, there had been three settlements founded two years before in New Andalusia.

THE CITY OF CORO.

It is incontrovertible, however, that the colony of Coro, founded by Ampués, was from its very beginning the most important, and continued to be so for many years. Coro was the starting point for the several expeditions of Spira and the Welsers, or Belzares, to the interior of Colombia, as well as of Venezuela, in search of gold and of the "El Dorado."

It being unnecessary to give a lengthy account of the Spanish conquest and the subsequent history of the country, the following brief historical sketch has been prepared covering the main points in the life of the once colony of Spain, now an independent State.

Spanish domination once established in the city of Caracas, now the capital of the Republic, the construction of high roads and other improvements was commenced with the aid of the Indians as laborers.

The importance of Caracas, together with the exceptional advantages of climate and fertility of soil, brought about the transfer of the seat of the colonial government from Coro to Caracas, where it remained until the War of Independence broke out, and the Republic was proclaimed upon the basis of the declaration of the rights of man by the United States in the last century, and by the adoption of the principles of its Constitution and ideas of liberty and order.

The absolute lack of cohesion and stability in the Spanish colonial government in Venezuela is easily comprehended and explained when one considers that the basis of its acts was the political disfranchisement of the natives, the prevailing maxim and practice being that only Spaniards had the right to elect and to be elected to public offices, civil and military, with very rare exceptions.

THE WAR OF INDEPENDENCE.

The first efforts of the people to free themselves from the Spanish yoke were not successful. After the landing at Coro, in 1806, of Gen. Francisco Antonio Miranda and his unfortunate advance into the interior of the country, he was obliged to retreat and to postpone to a later date the war of independence, owing to the want of concert and organization in the opposition to the dominant colonial power with all its resources and ramifications, aside from the fanaticism among the masses, which had been studiously taught to look upon the Spanish crown as of divine origin and to give blind and absolute obedience to the civil, military, and ecclesiastical authorities established in its name as matters of religion and conscience.

The events which followed the abortive attempt of 1806, accentuating the dominating oppression, sowing discontent and disseminating it, gave impulse and form to the revolutions of April 19, 1810, and July 5, 1811, which began with the deposing of Governor Amparan, and the independent civil and military organization which, after the varying and numerous fortunes of the most ferocious and bloody war imaginable, ended finally with the triumph of republican arms on the memorable field of Boyacá, in the territory of the viceroyalty of New Granada, now Colombia, and later, on June 25, 1821, on the field of Carabobo, in the central part of Venezuela, where the independence of the two Republics was sealed forever. These two later united to themselves Ecuador after the victory in Bomboná of the Liberator Simón Bolívar, at the moment when his worthy emulator and lieutenant, Gen. Antonio José de Sucre, gave the coup de grace to the colonial power on the field of Pichincha through the occupation of Quito, the present capital of the Republic of Ecuador.

BOLIVAR SECURES THE INDEPENDENCE OF PERU AND BOLIVIA.

The Republic of Colombia, freed and organized under the presidency of the Liberator Simón Bolívar, the latter did not deem independence assured so long as Peru, Bolivia, and the other southern republics remained under Spanish rule through failure to cement their own freedom.

At the request of the Congress of Peru, Bolívar sent the necessary reinforcements, under command of Sucre, and immediately betook himself to the theater of action, leaving the presidency of Colombia in the hands of the vice-president, Gen. Francisco de Paula Santander.

On his arrival at Lima, where he reorganized the army, he assumed

the presidency, while there were still enemies to fight and to conquer. He finally triumphed over them at Junín and Ayacucho, at which latter place the republican forces, under the great Marshal Sucre, captured the Viceroy Laserna, the General in Chief Aymeric, and other Spanish generals, commanders, and officers, who were granted full liberty to return to Spain.

There the independence of the two Republics of Peru and Bolivia was permanently secured. To the latter was given the name of its liberator in place of its former designation of Upper Peru.

SURRENDER OF PUERTO CABELLO AND MARACAIBO.

Although the battle of Carabobo, June 25, 1821, had been decisive as regards the independence of Colombia and Venezuela, neither the castle of Puerto Cabello, nor that of San Carlos, at the entrance of Lake Maracaibo, nor the city of the same name and vicinity, were liberated thereby. These surrendered successively. Puerto Cabello, after a desperate struggle, capitulated to Gen. José Antonio Páez, and Maracaibo was attacked and vanquished by the fleet under command of the great sailor, José Padilla, who forced the bar, entered the lake, and, opposite the plaza of Maracaibo, fought the Spanish squadron which was superior in number and size to that of Colombia.

SEPARATION OF VENEZUELA AND DEATH OF BOLIVAR.

The independence of both having been indisputably assured, the Liberator returned to Colombia, where he exerted the greatest efforts to maintain the "Union" between the three sections composing it; but he was unsuccessful, and finally resigned his command, disconsolate, and died broken-hearted in November, 1830, at his country seat of San Pedro Alejandrino, near the port of Santa Marta, at the moment that Colombia, the creation of his genius and of his sword, was being dismembered and divided into the three Republics known to-day as Venezuela, Colombia (formerly Nueva Granada), and Ecuador.

RECOGNITION OF VENEZUELA BY SPAIN.

Although, in fact, the three Republics of Colombia, Peru, and Bolivia became independent of Spain and the first was divided into three other republics, *i. e.*, Venezuela, New Granada (which later assumed the name of Colombia), and Ecuador, it was natural to seek to obtain from the mother country the treaty of peace with the recognition of the new order of things. All of them have succeeded in securing this. The

treaty of peace, on the part of Venezuela, was signed at Madrid on March 30, 1847, her independence being formally recognized, together with the possession of all rights of the Crown to the territory previously belonging to Spain, within the jurisdiction of the Captaincy-General of Venezuela.

POLITICAL CONSTITUTION OF VENEZUELA.

The final separation of Venezuela from the rest of the original Colombia having been resolved by its Congress, that body assembled in Valencia, promulgated the constitution of 1830, which, as subsequently amended, is the one now in force since June 21, 1893. According to the constitution, the national territory was divided into nine States, under the name of United States of Venezuela. Their limits are established and the right is granted to two or more of these States to combine or unite into one, providing their respective legislative assemblies shall so decide. They may also conversely ask for their separation, provided two-thirds of their districts assent to it, whenever their population exceeds 100,000 inhabitants. Besides the above-mentioned nine States, the constitution creates and brings under the Government of the Union the territories of Colón and Amazonas, and reincorporates the two Territories of Delta and Zulia, respectively, as they were formerly owned by Spain, within the jurisdictional limits of the Captaincy-General of Venezuela, dependent upon the viceroyalty of Santa Fe de Bogotá.

BOUNDARIES OF THE REPUBLIC.

The exact boundaries of the Republic of Venezuela were not definitely established upon its separation from the Great Colombia, hence the subsequent controversies to establish those between the State of Zulia and the neighboring Republic of Colombia, submitted to the arbitration of the King of Spain and settled by the award of the Queen Regent. The boundaries between the Goajira and the Territory of Amazonas, on the Upper Orinoco, have been the subject of diplomatic negotiations and appear in the present treaty between the plenipotentiaries of Venezuela and Colombia, the ratification of which by the respective congresses is still pending.

MEDIATION OF THE UNITED STATES WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

The vexatious and ancient Guiana boundary dispute with Great Britain, whose constantly advancing aggressions are held to be scarcely compatible with the declarations of the British Government, made at the time of the exploration by Robert Schomburgk in 1841,

and of the claims of Venezuela through her minister in London, Dr. Alejo Fortique, has been submitted to an arbitral tribunal which is to meet in Paris within the shortest possible time pursuant to the treaty concluded on February 2 of the year 1897 between the plenipotentiaries of Venezuela and Great Britain, after prolonged resistance on the part of the latter to accepting this peaceful means of settling the difficulty, constantly proposed by Venezuela for many years, and successfully maintained by the United States and their high national authorities to the extent of appointing a commission to determine the divisional line, with the firm purpose not to permit to be wrested from Venezuela by force territory which rightfully and lawfully may belong to her through the title of first occupant, and the other evidence which was adduced in the old disputes with Holland, grantor to Great Britain, and many other documents that are to be found in the archives of the Indies in Spain.

SIGNING OF THE TREATY OF ARBITRATION IN WASHINGTON.

Diplomatic relations having been severed because of these controversies, the Congress of the United States resolved to request Great Britain to accept arbitration which had been rejected previously, and which was agreed to finally, after a diplomatic correspondence highly honorable to the United States, through whose mediation and good offices the arbitration treaty was concluded in the terms following:

The United States of Venezuela, and Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, being desirous to provide for an amicable settlement of the question which has arisen between their respective governments concerning the boundary between the United States of Venezuela and the Colony of British Guiana, have resolved to submit to arbitration the question involved, and to the end of concluding a Treaty for that purpose have appointed as their respective Plenipotentiaries:

The President of the United States of Venezuela, Señor José Andrade, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary of Venezuela to the United States of America;

And Her Majesty the Queen of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, the Right Honorable Sir Julian Pauncefote, a Member of Her Majesty's Most Honorable Privy Council, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath and of the Most Distinguished Order of St. Michael and St. George, and Her Majesty's Ambassador Extraordinary and Plenipotentiary to the United States;

Who, having communicated to each other their respective full powers which were found to be in due and proper form, have agreed to and concluded the following articles:

ARTICLE I.

An arbitral Tribunal shall be immediately appointed to determine the boundary line between the United States of Venezuela and the Colony of British Guiana.

ARTICLE II.

The Tribunal shall consist of five Jurists; two on the part of Venezuela nominated, one by the President of the United States of Venezuela, namely, the Honorable Melville Weston Fuller, Chief Justice of the United States of America, and one nominated by the Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States of America, namely, the Honorable David Josiah Brewer, a Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States of America; two on the part of Great Britain nominated by the members of the Judicial Committee of Her Majesty's Privy Council, namely, the Right Honorable Baron Herschell, Knight Grand Cross of the Most Honorable Order of the Bath; and the Honorable Sir Richard Henn Collins, Knight, one of the Justices of Her Britannic Majesty's Supreme Court of Judicature; and of a fifth Jurist to be selected by the four persons so nominated, or in the event of their failure to agree within three months from the date of the exchange of ratifications of the present Treaty, to be selected by His Majesty the King of Sweden and Norway. The Jurist so selected shall be President of the Tribunal.

In case of the death, absence or incapacity to serve of any of the four Arbitrators above named, or in the event of any such Arbitrator omitting or declining or ceasing to act as such, another Jurist of repute shall be forthwith substituted in his place. If such vacancy shall occur among those nominated on the part of Venezuela the substitute shall be appointed by the Justices of the Supreme Court of the United States, acting by a majority, and if among those nominated on the part of Great Britain he shall be appointed by the members for the time being of the Judicial Committee of Her Majesty's Privy Council, acting by a majority. If such vacancy shall occur in the case of the fifth Arbitrator, a substitute shall be selected in the manner herein provided for with regard to the original appointment.

ARTICLE III.

The Tribunal shall investigate and ascertain the extent of the territories belonging to or that might lawfully be claimed by the United Netherlands or by the Kingdom of Spain respectively at the time of the acquisition by Great Britain of the Colony of British Guiana—and shall determine the boundary line between the United States of Venezuela and the Colony of British Guiana.

ARTICLE IV.

In deciding the matters submitted, the Arbitrators shall ascertain all facts which they deem necessary to a decision of the controversy, and shall be governed by the following rules, which are agreed upon by the high contracting parties as rules to be taken as applicable to the case, and by such principles of international law not inconsistent therewith as the Arbitrators shall determine to be applicable to the case.

Rules :

(a) Adverse holding or prescription during a period of fifty years shall make a good title. The Arbitrators may deem exclusive political control of a district as well as actual settlement thereof sufficient to constitute adverse holding or to make title by prescription.

(b) The Arbitrators may recognize and give effect to rights and claims resting on any other ground whatever valid according to international law and on any princi-

ples of international law which the Arbitrators may deem to be applicable to the case and which are not in contravention of the foregoing rule.

(c) In determining the boundary line, if territory of one party be found by the Tribunal to have been at the date of this Treaty in the occupation of the subjects or citizens of the other party, such effect shall be given to such occupation as reason, justice, the principles of international law and the equities of the case shall, in the opinion of the Tribunal, require.

ARTICLE V.

The Arbitrators shall meet at Paris, within sixty days after the delivery of the printed arguments mentioned in Article VIII, and shall proceed impartially and carefully to examine and decide the questions that have been or shall be laid before them as herein provided on the part of the Governments of the United States of Venezuela and Her Britannic Majesty respectively.

Provided always that the Arbitrators may, if they shall think fit, hold their meetings or any of them at any other place which they may determine.

All questions considered by the Tribunal, including the final decision, shall be determined by a majority of all the Arbitrators.

Each of the High Contracting Parties shall name one person as its agent to attend the Tribunal and to represent it generally in all matters connected with the Tribunal.

ARTICLE VI.

The printed case of each of the two parties, accompanied by the documents, the official correspondence, and other evidence on which each relies, shall be delivered in duplicate to each of the Arbitrators and to the Agent of the other party as soon as may be after the appointment of the members of the Tribunal, but within a period not exceeding eight months from the date of the exchange of the ratifications of this Treaty.

ARTICLE VII.

Within four months after the delivery on both sides of the printed case, either party may in like manner deliver in duplicate to each of the said Arbitrators, and to the Agent of the other party, a counter case, and additional documents, correspondence, and evidence, in reply to the case, documents, correspondence, and evidence so presented by the other party.

If in the case submitted to the Arbitrators either party shall have specified or alluded to any report or document in its own exclusive possession, without annexing a copy, such party shall be bound, if the other party thinks proper to apply for it, to furnish that party with a copy thereof, and either party may call upon the other, through the Arbitrators, to produce the originals or certified copies of any papers adduced as evidence giving in each instance notice thereof within thirty days after delivery of the case; and the original or copy so requested shall be delivered as soon as may be and within a period not exceeding forty days after receipt of notice.

ARTICLE VIII.

It shall be the duty of the Agent of each party, within three months after the expiration of the time limited for the delivery of the counter case on both sides, to

deliver in duplicate to each of the said Arbitrators and to the Agent of the other party a printed argument showing the points and referring to the evidence upon which his Government relies, and either party may also support the same before the Arbitrators by oral argument of counsel; and the Arbitrators may, if they desire further elucidation with regard to any point, require a written or printed statement or argument, or oral argument by counsel, upon it; but in such case the other party shall be entitled to reply either orally or in writing, as the case may be.

ARTICLE IX.

The Arbitrators may, for any cause deemed by them sufficient, enlarge either of the periods fixed by Articles VI, VII, and VIII by the allowance of thirty days additional.

ARTICLE X.

The decision of the tribunal shall, if possible, be made within three months from the close of the argument on both sides.

It shall be made in writing and dated, and shall be signed by the Arbitrators who may assent to it.

The decision shall be in duplicate, one copy whereof shall be delivered to the Agent of the United States of Venezuela for his Government, and the other copy shall be delivered to the Agent of Great Britain for his Government.

ARTICLE XI.

The Arbitrators shall keep an accurate record of their proceedings and may appoint and employ the necessary officers to assist them.

ARTICLE XII.

Each Government shall pay its own Agent and provide for the proper remuneration of the counsel employed by it and of the Arbitrators appointed by it or in its behalf, and for the expense of preparing and submitting its case to the Tribunal. All other expenses connected with the Arbitration shall be defrayed by the two Governments in equal moieties.

ARTICLE XIII.

The High Contracting Parties engage to consider the result of the proceedings of the Tribunal of Arbitration as a full, perfect, and final settlement of all the questions referred to the Arbitrators.

ARTICLE XIV.

The present Treaty shall be duly ratified by the President of the United States of Venezuela by and with the approval of the Congress thereof and by Her Britannic Majesty; and the ratifications shall be exchanged in Washington or in London within six months from the date hereof.

In faith whereof, we, the respective Plenipotentiaries, have signed this treaty and have hereunto affixed our seals.

Done in duplicate at Washington, the second day of February, one thousand eight hundred and ninety-seven.

For several years Great Britain had disregarded the proposals of Venezuela, and subsequently those of the United States to submit the question of the Guiana boundary to arbitration.

MESSAGE OF PRESIDENT HARRISON.

President Harrison, in his annual message to Congress in December, 1891, expressed himself as follows:

I should have been glad to announce some favorable disposition of the boundary dispute between Great Britain and Venezuela touching the western frontier of British Guiana, but the friendly efforts of the United States in that direction have thus far been unavailing. The Government will continue to express its concern at any appearance of foreign encroachment on territories long under the administrative control of American States. The determination of a disputed boundary is easily attainable by amicable arbitration, where the rights of the respective parties rest, as here, on historic facts readily ascertainable.

MESSAGE OF PRESIDENT CLEVELAND.

Great Britain remaining impassive to the constant efforts of Venezuela and of the Government and Congress of the United States, President Cleveland finally sent his memorable message of December 17, 1895, to Congress, four years after the one above mentioned.

The firm and decided stand of the United States produced alarm in both, intimating as it did in unequivocal terms the resolve of the United States to solemnly recognize the rights of Venezuela despite the resistance of Great Britain to the adoption of pacific means to settle the boundary in question.

THE AMERICAN BOUNDARY COMMISSION.

Consequently the Congress of the United States authorized the President to appoint a commission, which was in fact done, composed of competent persons, which, during the greater part of 1896, was engaged in the investigation of the disputed points; and when it had concluded its labors the Governments of the United States and Great Britain came to an understanding as to the necessity of concluding a treaty that should prevent the conflicts which would necessarily arise in case the territory appropriated by Great Britain, notwithstanding the opposition and repeated protests of the Government of Venezuela, between Point Barima and the Esequibo River, in the auriferous belt in the interior of the country, had been held by the commission to be included within the Venezuelan territory.

After the concluding of the convention submitting the determination of the Guiana boundary to the arbitrators named in the respective protocol, the Boundary Commission terminated its labors. The documents presented by Venezuela, together with those requested and obtained of Great Britain by the Department of State of the United States, and such as were collected by the agents of the commission in Holland, Great Britain, and the Vatican at Rome, will be submitted to the arbitral tribunal, according to the terms of the treaty, to throw light upon the question until finally decided.

III.

THE GOVERNMENT AND CONSTITUTIONAL ORGANIZATION OF THE REPUBLIC.

CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION.

The constitutional convention of the new Republic of Venezuela promulgated in 1830 the constitution of the State at the time of its separation from the other sections. That organic law, although not providing the federal form for the government of the provinces into which the national territory was divided, was patterned after the Constitution of the United States, with the modifications demanded by the incipient condition of the new political entity, the intellectual state of the people, their habits and customs during the three centuries of Spanish rule, assuredly very different from those prevailing in the United States at the time of their political transformation.

Other constitutions were framed later, introducing the federal system for the regulation of the States composing the Republic. The last, now in force, was ratified by the national congress in Caracas, capital of the Republic, on June 21, 1893, by the representatives of the States of Bolívar, Miranda, Carabobo, Los Andes, Bermúdez, Falcón, Lara, Zulia, Zamora, and the Federal District, which is entitled to representation in Venezuela.

This constitution establishes the boundaries of the States, following those laid down in the previous constitution of April 28, 1856, except as regards the Territory of Nirgua, which forms part of the Territory of Carabobo and not of that of Lara, which was the case formerly.

The constitution also grants to any two or more of the States to unite and constitute one State whenever the legislatures thereof shall so

decide by a two-thirds vote; and also authorized the sections of territory formed into States by the constitution of April 27, 1881, to again become such whenever two-thirds of the districts thereof shall so request, provided the population exceeds 100,000 inhabitants,¹ as before stated.

CITIZENSHIP AND ITS REQUIREMENTS.

Citizenship is conferred by the fact of birth on the national territory, and is also acquired by naturalization.

Children of a Venezuelan father or mother, even though born abroad, become Venezuelans by birth upon declaring before competent authority, on entering Venezuela, that such is their desire.

For those born abroad of a Venezuelan father or mother, and those born in Spanish-American countries or the Spanish Antilles, it is only necessary to declare their intention to become naturalized to acquire citizenship.

ALIENS ENJOY THE SAME RIGHTS.

Foreigners enjoy the same civil rights as Venezuelans. The Government of Venezuela can not conclude treaties with nations that do not recognize that while their citizens in Venezuela enjoy the same civil rights as natives of the country they are also subject to the same obligations.

BASES OF THE UNION AND GUARANTEES.

Title III of the Constitution establishes the bases of the Union, the form of the federal government of the States, and its jurisdictional limits.

It likewise guarantees, before the law, the inviolability of life and the home and the free expression of thought. It declares property to be inviolable save where needed for public purposes, through indemnity and other legal formalities. It also provides for the inviolability of correspondence. It prohibits conscription for the military service.

No passport is required to travel within the Republic or depart from the same.

¹ In accordance with this provision, the States of Miranda, Bermúdez, and Los Andes have lately separated in sections which form the following new States: The State of Miranda forms at present the three separate States of Rivas, Guárico, and Miranda; the State of Bermúdez is divided in the States of Barcelona and Sucre, and the State of Los Andes into Los Andes and Trujillo.

LEGISLATIVE POWER.

The Congress and legislative chambers.—The Congress is the legislative body and is composed of two chambers—the Senate and the Chamber of Deputies or Representatives.

Each State names three senators and three alternates through its legislature. The requirements for a senator are to be a natural-born Venezuelan and 30 years of age. The term of office of senators is four years, and one-half of them are removable every two years.

The Chamber of Deputies is composed of representatives of the States and of the federal district elected for four years, upon the basis of one deputy for every 30,000 inhabitants and one for every excess over this number which shall not fall below 15,000.

The legislatures of the States are empowered to regulate the manner of electing their deputies and the alternates to fill temporary or permanent vacancies.

Deputies to the Congress must be Venezuelans by birth.

The federal Congress meets at the capital, without previous notice, on February 20 of each year.

The regular sessions last seventy days, and may be extended to ninety.

The chambers have, approximately, the same powers as in the United States.

The Senate and the Chamber of Deputies choose their respective presidents. The presiding officer of the Senate presides over joint sessions of the chambers.

EXECUTIVE POWER.

The executive power is exercised by the President of the Republic, and in his absence by the President of the Council of Government jointly with the ministers of the several branches of the public administration and the Council of Government, in all cases and with all the attributes defined by the Constitution.

The President of the Republic has the same powers as the President of the United States, with little differences, but his nominations do not need the approval of the Senate, although they do require the approval of the Council of Government, which is also required for the exercise of certain powers prescribed by the Constitution, among which is the power to prohibit aliens not domiciled and notoriously prejudicial to public order from entering the territory of the Republic, and to expel them from the same.

THE COUNCIL OF GOVERNMENT.

The Council of Government divides with the executive the exercise of the more important among the functions in the administration of public business.

It is composed of nine councilors, named by the Congress every four years within the ten days next following the election of the President of the Republic. The alternates who are to fill temporary or permanent vacancies in the council are also elected in like manner.

The council chooses its president and vice-president from among its members; also a secretary and other necessary officers.

It meets as often as its rules require, and for the conduct of business the presence of at least two-thirds of the members is required.

MINISTERS OF THE EXECUTIVE.

The ministers of the executive power have the right to participate in the discussions of the council, and the obligation to appear when called upon for information. In the deliberations on matters within its jurisdiction a majority vote of those present will prevail.

The President appoints the ministers (called secretaries in the United States) of the several branches of administration. These ministers must be natural-born citizens and over twenty-five years of age. All administrative acts of the ministers, save such as are of a financial nature, must be submitted for approval to the Council of Government. The ministers are obliged to report to Congress every year as to the conduct of their ministries within eight days after the opening of the regular sessions. They have a seat and voice in the legislative chambers, as also the obligation to appear when called upon and furnish the information requested.

The Venezuelan cabinet is composed of the following ministers:

- Minister of Interior Relations.
- Minister of Foreign Relations.
- Minister of Public Credit.
- Minister of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce.
- Minister of Mails and Telegraphs.
- Minister of Public Works.
- Minister of War and Navy.
- Minister of Public Instruction.

JUDICIAL POWER.

The judicial power of the nation is exercised by the High Federal Court, the court of cassation, and the other tribunals and courts created by law, which defines their jurisdiction and organization.

HIGH FEDERAL COURT.

The High Federal Court is composed of nine members, whose default is supplied by as many alternates appointed with the same formalities as the regular members.

The legislative assembly of each State sends to Congress a list of nine persons from among whom the councilor and alternate from the State such assembly represents are to be selected. At the same session when the councilor and alternate are chosen Congress classifies the seven remaining candidates in numerical order as first, second, third, fourth, fifth, sixth, and seventh alternate, to fill in the order named the absences of the councilor and alternate.

Members of the High Federal Court are appointed every six years, and this supreme tribunal chooses two clerks pursuant to the Constitution.

The attributes of that court are similar to those of the Supreme Court of the United States. They have, moreover, the extraordinary power to try the President of the Republic, diplomatic officers, and other high functionaries of the Council of Government, ministers, members of the High Federal Court, and the court of cassation for treason, violations of the Constitution, or for common crimes.

It takes cognizance of cases growing out of contracts made by the President of the Union and of the constitutionality of legislative acts.

COURT OF CASSATION.

The supreme tribunal of the States is the court of cassation, which under the Constitution must be composed of one member for each State, if the number of these is less than nine. Should the States aggregate more than nine, the court shall not exceed this number. The rule as to the alternates and the designation of six or more to fill temporary or permanent vacancies is the same as that governing alternates in the case of the High Federal Court. The legislatures can not choose judges of the court of cassation from their own membership. These judges must be lawyers who have practiced for at least six years, and they can not accept office under the Executive even by resigning.

ARMY AND NAVY.

The national forces are both land and naval, and are made up of the militia organized by the States pursuant to the laws.

LIMITATIONS OF AUTHORITY.

No one can exercise both civil and military authority at the same time. The National Government can not place in any State military forces of the same State or of any other without permission of the governor of the same.

The Constitution prohibits the levying of any duty or other tax on exports from the country.

Every expense not approved in the appropriation act is expressly prohibited.

National employees can not accept any gift, office, title, or remuneration from foreign nations without the consent of the senate.

COMPACTS WITH THE GOVERNMENTS OF AMERICA.

The national Executive is empowered to treat with the governments of America regarding compacts of alliance and confederation.

The assignment, in whole or in part, to foreign governments of contracts with the National Government or with the State governments is prohibited. Doubts and controversies growing out of such contracts shall be submitted to the courts of the Republic, and can in no case be the subject of diplomatic claims.

OBSERVANCE OF INTERNATIONAL LAW.

The provisions of international law are adopted by article 150 of the Constitution as part of the Venezuelan laws, especially in civil wars and treaties of peace; human life, in every case, being considered inviolable.

PRESIDENTIAL TERM AND CONSTITUTIONAL DATES.

The Presidential terms are reckoned from February 20, 1892.

In all public documents and acts the date of independence, July 5, 1811, and of the federation, February 20, 1859, when the federal system was adopted, are cited.

GOVERNMENT OF THE STATES, TERRITORIES, AND COLONIES.

Each of the States forming the Venezuelan confederation is governed by a president chosen by direct vote of the legislature thereof for a term of four years.

The laws of each State determine the manner and time of electing the several officers.

The executive power is vested with the necessary constitutional authority for the better organization of the federal district. The President exercises therein his authority through a governor of his own exclusive choosing.

Besides the thirteen States and the Federal District, which resembles that of Columbia in the United States, there are the two Federal Territories of Colón and Amazonas, governed by special enactments and dependent upon the Federal Government, forming a part of the national territory.

The two colonies of Independencia and Bolívar, founded in 1874 for the purpose of inaugurating the colonization system under the ministry of agriculture, industry, and commerce, also form a part of the nation.

IV.

POLITICAL DIVISION OF THE REPUBLIC INTO STATES, COLONIES, AND TERRITORIES.

The territory of the Republic is divided into thirteen Federal States, as follows:

Rivas, Miranda, Los Andes, Trujillo, Barcelona, Sucre, Bolívar, Carabobo, Falcón, Guárico, Lara, Zamora, and Zulia; two Federal Territories, Colón and Amazonas; two agricultural colonies, Bolívar and Independencia, and the Federal District, seat of the supreme national authority.

Each State has its president and legislature. The former is elected by direct vote every four years. Each State, by special law, determines the form and conditions for the election of the members of its legislature.

The Federal District is dependent upon the President of the Republic, who exercises his authority therein through a governor of his free selection.

The two territories of Colón and Amazonas are also directly dependent upon the Government and are governed by special laws.

THE FEDERAL DISTRICT.

The Federal District is composed of the eight parishes of the city of Caracas, the capital of the Republic, i. e., Catedral, Altagracia, Santa

Teresa, Santa Rosalía, Candelaria, San Juan, La Pastora, and San José. The six suburban parishes, separated from the capital, are: El Valle, Antimano, La Vega, El Recreo, Macuto, and Macarao. The total population of the district, including the suburban parishes, is 90,959 souls.

THE CAPITAL.

The capital of the Republic, seat of the national government, is the city of Caracas, founded in 1567 by Don Diego de Lozada, a Spanish captain, who gave the city the name of Santiago de León, which it still retains in old and modern public documents. Seven years before the arrival of Lozada, Don Francisco Fajardo had made an unsuccessful attempt to found the capital; his failure was due to the warlike character of the indigenous tribes.

The geographical position of Caracas is $67^{\circ} 4' 45''$ west of the Greenwich meridian, or $69^{\circ} 25'$ east of the Paris meridian, and occupies an area of 4,272,000 square meters. Its altitude above the sea level has been calculated to be 3,018 English feet at the base of the cathedral tower. The city, including the six outlying parishes, forms the Federal District, and is situated in the beautiful valley of Caracas, 12 miles in length and somewhat over 3 miles at its widest part. The climate and atmospheric conditions are admirable, owing to the mildness of the temperature, the pale blue skies, almost always unclouded, and the varied and smiling surroundings, from the lofty and broken heights of Avila to its slopes covered with high and leafy trees, its thick forests, and the peaceful plains from Chacao to La Vega, bathed by the Guaire River, and its smaller tributaries, the Caroata, Catuche, Ñaraulí, and Gamboa. The high hills to the south of the Guaire inclose the plateau on that side.

The temperature never rises above 82° F., nor has descended lower than 65° F. save occasionally, and then only for a few hours, toward the end of December, when the temperature is the lowest. The highest temperature is felt from June to September.

According to the census of 1891, Caracas had a population of 72,429 inhabitants and 10,379 houses, without including the six suburban parishes making up the Federal District. With the inclusion of these, the total population becomes 90,000, rather more than less. In 1810 Caracas had 50,000 souls. The increase to-day is relatively small, owing to the devastations of the war of independence, which was maintained until 1824, the earthquake of 1812, and after that date the cholera epidemic, which caused great ravages. From 1880 to the completion

of the census of 1896 the increase has been comparatively greater, and it is but natural that it should continue to swell by reason of the normal conditions and the peace which reigns throughout the country generally and the incomparable climate the locality enjoys.

The streets of Caracas cross each other at right angles, and run lengthwise from east to west and from north to south. The cross streets, the principal streets of the city, are made of paving stones, the sidewalks being in cement, while the less prominent thoroughfares are paved in rough stones, the sidewalks being either in cement or large smooth slabs. The system employed for the nomenclature of the streets and the numbering of the houses is easy. Taking as a center the intersection of the streets where the tower of the cathedral stands, the street running north from that point to the National Pantheon is called North avenue (*Avenida Norte*); from the same intersection south, to the river Guaire, runs South avenue (*Avenida Sur*), and from the same starting point, east to the central railway station, and west to the old high road to La Guaira, run the East and West avenues (*Avenida Este y Avenida Oeste*), respectively. The streets parallel to these are numbered, even to the west, and with odd numbers to the east, and are called *calles*, for instance, *Calle Norte 1*, *Calle Sur 10*, *Calle Este 4*, *Calle Oeste 3*, etc.

The houses are all numbered with even numbers on one side and odd numbers on the opposite side. Notwithstanding this, the inhabitants use still the old system. There are, beside these streets, several alleys, and the three passages called *Pasaje Linares*, *Pasaje del Centenario*, and *Pasaje de Altigracia*.

PRINCIPAL BUILDINGS.

Among the most notable buildings of Caracas is the Capitol, which occupies an entire square, or an area of more than 2 acres. Within this building are the two halls where both chambers of the national congress hold their sessions, and rooms for the secretaries' offices and committees, facing on the south the spacious Central University, the National Museum and Library, and the old temple of San Francisco, while on the north it is annexed to the Federal Palace, having an elliptical hall devoted to public receptions on ceremonial occasions. Here are hung the portraits of the Presidents of the Republic, commencing with the Liberator Simón Bolívar, followed by the heroes of the independence and statesmen, and ending with the military champions who most distinguished themselves in the defense of the liberty of the country. The great battle of Carabobo, fought on June 25, 1822, which

secured the victory of the arms of the Republic and its separation from the Spanish power, is beautifully represented in the rotunda of the elliptical hall. It is the master work of the inspired Venezuelan artist, Martín Tovar y Tovar, who is also the author of the admirable painting representing the memorable session when the representatives of Venezuela signed and proclaimed to the world the declaration of independence. The artistic merit of the work is generally recognized, and the artist has been subsequently engaged in drawing the great battle of Ayacucho, fought on Peruvian territory.

In the spacious galleries on the east and west sides of the capitol which connect this building with the Federal Palace are the rooms of the High Federal Court and the departments of public instruction and the interior. The archives of these departments are kept in the lower floors. The interior courtyard of the capitol contains in the center a beautiful fountain with several jets of water, and at the sides a variety of ornamental flowers and plants. The arches at the east and west entrances are constructed with considerable taste, as are also the façades of the elliptical hall on the north and the halls of Congress on the south of the building. "La Casa Amarilla" (The Yellow House), official residence of the President of the Republic, is situated west of the Bolívar Square (Plaza Bolívar). It is an old building, two stories high, with beautiful interior gardens and arcades in both stories. On the south side of this building is situated the department of foreign relations (Pabellón de Relaciones Exteriores).

On the north side of the Bolívar Square is the building devoted to the main post-office (Administración General de Correos); the Cathedral lies to the east, and to the south are situated the Archbishop's Palace and the Municipal Palace, where the office of the governor of the Federal District is located; this building also contains several other judicial and executive offices and the police headquarters. In one of its principal halls civil marriages are performed. This hall is decorated with several pictures of prominent historical men, but the principal picture is the oil painting which occupies the entire side of the hall, representing, life size, the act of the signing of the act of independence and mentioned above.

Opposite the southern façade of the Capitol are the buildings devoted to the University, the so-called Exposition Palace, and the old temple of San Francisco. The University (Ilustre Universidad Central de Caracas y Venezuela) is a beautiful gothic building, with interior courtyards or gardens, having the statues of Dr. José Vargas, ex-President of the Republic, the founder of medical studies in Venezuela, and Don

TEMPLES.

With the exception of the "Basilica de Santa Aña," also called "Templo de Santa Teresa," and the Santa Capilla (Holy Chapel) the churches in Caracas belong to the old Spanish style of building. The principal churches in the city are the Metropolitan Cathedral, erected about 1614, which is a large building, with several naves and chapels handsomely decorated; the Basilica de Santa Ana, the largest of the churches in the city; the Santa Capilla, and the parochial churches of Altigracia, las Mercedes, San Francisco, Santa Rosalía, Candelaria, San José, and la Pastora.

PUBLIC PLACES OF AMUSEMENT.

Besides the theaters and the other public places of amusement already mentioned there are in Caracas the bull ring, the race track of Sabana Grande (where races are held annually under the management of the Caracas Jockey Club), baseball and bicycle parks and grounds, etc.

HISTORICAL OBJECTS IN THE NATIONAL MUSEUM.

In the halls of the National Museum, in the northwestern angle of the building, is a section devoted to the care and exhibition of the historical objects and articles used by the Liberator and other heroes of the independence. Among these may be found some decorations and gold and silver medals given to the former. The miniature of Washington, painted by Stuart after the great portrait by Field is there; the "Sol del Peru," which is a medal in the figure of a sun mounted with diamonds, presented in 1825 by the Republic of Peru to General Bolívar; the sword which was presented to the same general by the city of Lima, with its solid gold hilt and 1,430 diamonds; the saddle cloth, embroidered in raised gold, also a gift from Peru, are all here. Here also is preserved the coffin in which he was buried in Santa Marta.

In the same hall are preserved relics of General Miranda and General Páez, and some old standards from Caracas, the coat of arms of Charles V, which was placed over the door of the municipal building of the destroyed city of Nueva Cadiz. A painting of Caracas prior to the earthquake of 1812, the collar of a Peruvian cacique, a knife and fork of the Emperor Maximilian, and many other objects of interest, are also preserved.

CLUBS.

There are several clubs in Caracas, the principal being the Union Club, which occupies a large building elegantly furnished, and balls and receptions are held in its rooms. Besides this club there are the German, the Italian, the Agricultural, the Chess, the Bicycle, and other clubs. In harmony with the universal custom, introduction by a member entitles a person to visit each of these clubs for a limited time.

HOSPITALS.

The Gran Hospital Vargas, supported by the Government, is one of the most notable establishments of the capital, conducted by the Sisters of Charity and provided with whatever befits its best service. The Linares Hospital is intended for children and supported by private contributions.

HOTELS.

The principal inns of the city are the Gran Hotel on Comercio street (sur 4, No. 50), near the Federal Palace; the Saint Amand Hotel, to the east of the boulevard del Palacio Federal; the Gran Hotel Americano, a little further on, sur 2; The Hotel Klindt, on Avenida Este, No. 37; and the Gran Hotel Venezuela, on the Plaza Bolívar. The rates at these hotels are from ten to twenty bolivars a day (\$2 to \$4), according to the location of rooms, including meals and ordinary wine.

There are, besides, other hotels where lodging and meals may be obtained for five bolivars a day (\$1.00), or more, such as the hotels known as La Francia, Los Andes, El León de Oro, Paris, Bolívar, etc.

CITY TRAFFIC FACILITIES.

There are in the city two companies of horse cars, called the Caracas tramway and the Bolívar tramway, controlling several lines. One line connects the respective stations of the La Guaira and the Grand Venezuelan Railroad, on the western extremity of the city, with the station of the Central Railroad on the east side. The other line starts from the Iron Bridge (Puente de Hierro) and runs through several principal streets to the East boulevard, opposite the capitol; another line starts from Palo Grande and runs to the Plaza de Candelaria, and the other car line runs from Bolívar Square, opposite the Cathedral, to the Plaza de la Pastora.

Besides these car lines there is an excellent and numerous service of public conveyances, such as cabs, victorias, etc., regulated by special laws. The schedule of rates is from 30 to 40 cents a drive, according to distance; 80 cents per hour for the first hour and in proportion for the second hour, excepting the "coches de lujo" or first-class conveyances, which are authorized to charge at the rate of 2 pesos (\$1.50) per hour.

BANKS.

There are two banking institutions in Caracas. The Bank of Venezuela, with a capital of 8,000,000 bolívares and a reserve of 974,753.39 bolívares, collects drafts in all points of the Republic, charging a small interest. It also collects dividends and interest on capital invested. It pays moderate interest on deposits, and undertakes the purchase and sale of public securities. It carries running accounts and makes loans on good security.

It is located in a handsome building of its own on Calle 4 al Este, between La Sociedad and Traposos.

The Bank of Caracas is the other. It is a joint stock company with a capital of 6,000,000 bolívares and a reserve fund of 345,928 bolívares. It was established in 1890 as a bank of deposit and discount. It carries running accounts, makes drafts and remittances by cable; collects bills of exchange, accounts and coupons; issues letters of credit; buys and sells public securities on commission. Its offices are in a new building owned by the bank.

Both banks are private institutions, doing a large business in the country and abroad.

They each issue notes payable to bearer, which are redeemable at sight on presentation at the principal office, and have branch offices in other parts of the Republic.

TELEPHONES, TELEGRAPHS, AND RAILROADS.

There are two telephone companies in Caracas. The service is cheaper than in the United States. The Government owns all the telegraph lines throughout the Republic. The submarine cables connecting Venezuela with the Antilles, the United States, and Europe, respectively, belong to foreign companies having contracts with the Venezuelan Government establishing the conditions of the service.

Four railway lines start from Caracas. The line to Port La Guaira is a bold undertaking because of the height of Mount Avila and the

sinuosities of the land for the 37 kilometers it runs. The other lines run toward the interior over the Petare line, but it has barely been carried a few miles beyond this town in the direction of the rich valleys of Tuy. The line has been contracted and paid for as far as Santa Lucía.

The Valle line is only built for $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles. The longest line goes to Valencia and Puerto Cabello, crossing the high cordilleras surrounding Caracas and dropping into the valleys of Aragua.

The La Guaira and Caracas railroad station, and that of the Caracas and Valencia Railroad, are both in the northeastern part of the city. The station of the Central Railway from Caracas to Petare is in the eastern part at the head of the Avenida Este. The station of the Valle Railroad is located where the Iron Bridge crosses the Guaire River, south of Calle, whence starts the branch going to the General Cemetery.

Caracas is the residence of the Archbishop of Venezuela, the dioceses suffragan to it being those of Ciudad Bolívar, Calabozo, Barquisimeto, and Mérida, and that of Maracaibo.

The city is lighted by both gas and electricity.

V.

STATES OF THE UNION.

Until recently Venezuela was divided in nine self-governing States, subdivided into sections and municipalities. The former nine States were Los Andes, Bermúdez, Bolívar, Carabobo, Falcón, Lara, Miranda, Zamora, and Zulia. At the present time three of these States, by virtue of a constitutional prerogative, have separated into their respective sections, thus forming new federal States, as follows:

The former State of Los Andes, having a population of over 365,000 inhabitants, composed of the sections of Mérida, Trujillo, and Táchira, forms at present the new States of Los Andes and Trujillo.

The former State of Bermúdez, consisting of the sections of Barcelona, Cumaná, and Maturín, with a population of over 325,000 inhabitants, forms at present the States of Barcelona and Sucre.

The old State of Miranda, the largest of the Republic, having an area of 72,490 square miles, and a population of over 500,000, formerly composed of the sections Aragua, Bolívar, Guárico, and Nueva Esparta

(the important island of Margarita), has separated to form the new States of Rivas, Miranda, and Guárico.

The other States are the following:

The State of Bolívar (capital, Ciudad Bolívar) has only 135,232 souls in its two sections—Guayana and Apure—and ten districts. Each district has the municipalities assigned to it.

The State of Carabobo (capital, Valencia) has a population of 210,665 souls, and only one section, comprising seven districts, divided into municipalities.

The State of Falcón, whose capital is the ancient city of Coro, has no sections. It has a population of 141,689, and eleven districts, divided into fifty-three municipalities.

The State of Lara (capital, Barquisimeto) has a population of 262,411, and is divided into two sections, Barquisimeto and Yaracuy, and these into ten municipalities.

The capital of the State of Zamora is the city of Guanare, and it embraces the former provinces of Barinas, Portuguesa, and Cojedes. It comprises three sections, namely, Portuguesa, Zamora, and Cojedes, consisting of twenty-one municipalities.

The State of Zulia, with a population of 151,800 souls, has as capital the city of Maracaibo, but has no sections, only eight districts, known as Maracaibo, Miranda, Perijá, Urdaneta, Mora, Colón, Sucre, and Bolívar, containing in all twenty-nine municipalities.

The Bolívar and Independencia colonies and the territories of Colón and Amazonas are under the National Government, as before stated.

The capital of the Independencia colony is still a small town, bearing the name of Taguasita. It has barely 300 inhabitants. It is 37 kilometers from Altagracia de Orituco, a great agricultural center.

The seat of the Bolívar colony is called Araitha, 7 kilometers distant from Guatire.

The total population of the thirteen States of the Confederation, including the Federal District, reaches, according to the last census, 2,507,345 inhabitants of both sexes and all ages.

LONGEVITY.

It is a curious fact that in the Federal District, with its 90,959 souls, there are 20 persons over 100 years of age, of which 6 are men and 14 women.

The States of Los Andes and Trujillo, with a cool and even cold climate, have 68 persons more than 100 years old; those of Barcelona

and Sucre have 35; Bolívar, 11; Carabobo, 27; Falcón, 19; Lara, 13; Rivas, Guárico, and Miranda, 29; Zamora, 3; and Zulia, 1; which gives a total of 226 persons who have passed their one hundredth birthday in an aggregate population in the Republic of 2,444,816.

STATES OF LOS ANDES AND TRUJILLO.

(Formerly State of Los Andes.)

The boundaries of the old State of Los Andes (now Los Andes and Trujillo), formed by the sections of Trujillo, Mérida, and Táchira, are the following: On the north the States of Zulia and Lara; on the south and east the State of Zamora; on the west the Republic of Colombia and a portion of the State of Zamora.

The population of the State numbers over 365,000 inhabitants, and its area is 14,719 square miles.

The range of the Venezuelan Andes runs across the entire State, affording exceptional facilities for all kinds of agricultural work, as on account of its high mountains having numberless snow-capped peaks (*páramos*) the products of all the zones can be cultivated.

The fluvial system of the State, although not abundant in navigable rivers, has a great number of streams from the mountains which either empty into Lake Maracaibo or flow to the neighboring States. The principal river is the Motatán, being nearly 300 kilometers in length, over 100 of which are navigable. Of these, 10 kilometers belong to the State of Zulia. The Motatán empties into Lake Maracaibo.

Overland communication in the State is by means of highroads and mule paths. There is a regular system of mail and telegraph communication with the rest of the Republic. The rivers afford the means of communication and traffic with the neighboring States and the Republic of Colombia. Trade is carried on through the centers of San Cristóbal and San Antonio, where the Government has established a national custom-house.

There are three railroad lines under construction—one between La Ceiba and Trujillo, a second line from San Carlos del Zulia to Mérida, and another line from Encontrados to San Juan de Colón.

The climate is exceptionally fine and healthy. In the State are found the climates of all the zones—warm, temperate, and cold—so that in one day all the temperatures may be experienced, from an oppressive heat in the lower valleys to an intense cold at the top of the mountains.

The agricultural products of the State are mainly coffee, in large quantities, cocoa, sugar cane, wheat, cotton, tobacco, indigo, and all

kinds of vegetables. Cattle breeding is rather neglected. The State possesses a fine variety of rich and useful woods, and also several minerals, among others the urao, or sesquicarbonate of soda, and coal, which in some regions is found in the shape of surface croppings. A full list of the mineral wealth of the State will be found in the chapter of the handbook devoted to the mineral wealth of the Republic.

The industrial products of the State are cotton and woolen fabrics, sacks, and sackcloth made of the fiber of the "cocuiza" and the "cocuy," hammocks, vegetable oils, woolen mats, dyed in vegetable colors in the country, flour, and other articles of consumption.

The principal cities are:

Mérida, capital of the old State, founded by Rodríguez de Suárez in 1558. It has a population of 6,000, occupying an eminence forming one of the most beautiful valleys of Venezuela, on the right bank of the Chamas River, which flows at the foot of a great range of mountains that are snow-capped at all seasons of the year. It is 310 miles from Caracas, 5,303 feet above sea level.

From the bottom of the San Juan lagoon, 15 miles from Mérida, is extracted natron, which is employed to soften the asperity of a certain kind of tobacco reduced to a black pulp, vulgarly known as *moho* or *chimoho*, which is used by the poorer classes in the place of chewing tobacco.

The University of Los Andes is in Mérida. It was founded in 1810 for clerical education in the branches of ecclesiastical history and sacred theology, branches of civil and canonical law being added subsequently. Mérida also has a National School for Girls, several other educational institutions, a public library, newspapers, hospitals, etc. The city is the mercantile center of a great region.

In 1778 His Holiness Pius VI issued the bull creating the bishopric of Mérida.

Trujillo, the old capital city of the section bearing its name, was founded by Paredes in 1565, two years before Caracas. It is 1,485 feet above tide water. The mean annual temperature is $22\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ C., the minimum $18\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, and the maximum 26° . The population is 3,000 souls. The town was looted and burned by the French pirate Grammont, who landed on the coast 240 miles away. This is the commercial center of the Trujillo region, whose principal products are an excellent quality of coffee, sugar cane, wheat, and timber. There are in the section mines of sulphur and antimony. The city of Trujillo has some fine public buildings, churches, a federal college of the first class, a National School for Girls, other institutions of learning, newspapers, etc.

San Cristóbal is an old and flourishing city of the Táchira section, with a population of 6,000 inhabitants, 42 miles distant from the Táchira River, which forms the boundary line between Venezuela and Colombia. It is bathed by the Torbes River, and lies in a rich valley 3,000 feet above the sea, enjoying a mild and cool temperature of an annual average of 70° F. Within its jurisdiction are produced excellent coffee, sugar, tobacco, and vanilla, the latter growing wild in all the woods and forests of Venezuela. There are several industries established in the city.

Not far off is the prosperous and flourishing town of Rubio, in the neighborhood of which oil is struck at relatively small depths below the surface, sometimes 100 feet. The product is refined on a small scale for the local consumption. The sample sent to the New Orleans Exposition in 1884 was analyzed and showed the superior quality of the article. Coal deposits are also to be found, but they have not yet been worked.

San Antonio is the name of the Venezuelan town on the frontier which served as the seat of the national custom-house for goods which, after entry in the Maracaibo custom-house, came here in transit to pay duties, or to be withdrawn for consumption in the neighboring Republic of Colombia. This custom-house was abolished in October, 1897, and now the import duties and the transportation to Colombia must be paid and arranged for at Maracaibo, the railway line, 125 kilometers long, from Lake Maracaibo to La Fría having been established. This line is to be carried forward, touching at San Cristóbal and striking inland as far as Rubio.

The other principal towns are the capitals of the several sections of the State, all engaged in agriculture.

STATES OF BARCELONA AND SUCRE.

(Formerly State of Bermúdez).

The old State of Bermúdez, now divided into the States of Barcelona and Sucre, was formed by the so called sections of Barcelona, Cumafá, and Maturín. The State is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea, on the south by the State of Bolívar, on the east by the Gulf of Paria and the Delta of the Orinoco, and on the west by the former State of Miranda. The area of the State is over 80,000 square kilometers, and its population reaches over 300,000 inhabitants. The State is divided in 22 districts, formed by municipalities.

Two branches of the coast range, called the litoral range and the interior range, run through the State and meet on the Meapire Moun-

tain. Several arid lands, as well as cultivated valleys, among others Cumanacoa, Carúpano, and Rio Caribe, are found in these ranges.

The highest and largest table lands or mesas in Venezuela are found in this State, starting at the southern extremity of the mountain range and extending as far as the neighborhood of the Orinoco basin. The largest and highest table land is the Mesa de Guanipa, nearly 4,000 kilometers in extent and about 400 meters above the level of the sea. All these table lands are surrounded by large lagoons, thick forests, large rivers, and swamps. The table lands are barren. The plains are covered during the entire year with fine grazing pasture.

The principal rivers in the State are the river Tigre, 300 kilometers in length, of which over 200 are navigable; the Guanipa River, about 300 kilometers in length, and navigable for about 100; the Unare and the Guarapiche, both navigable for about 100 kilometers. There are in this State, besides the above-mentioned rivers, over 20 rivers and streams, most of them navigable, and about 200 small streams. The Neveri River, on whose bank the city of Barcelona is built, is also partly navigable, as well as the Manzanares, the river of the city and port of Cumaná.

There are a great many small lakes or lagoons in the State, the principal being the Guasonica, used as a means of communication with the plains of Maturín; the Unare, in the vicinity of which are found excellent salt deposits, and the Putucual, near which the thermal waters of Putucual are found, and several sulphur mines.

The celebrated Guacharo Cave, the most remarkable of its kind in the world, is found in this State. The cave is situated at about 3,000 feet above the level of the sea, has several tunnels and three main galleries. One of these galleries, about 6,000 feet in length, is inhabited by *Guacharo* birds, a species of sea gull; in the other gallery, about 600 feet in length, no animals are found, and through it runs a beautiful brook. The blind gallery, over 300 feet in length, is of surpassing beauty. The width of the galleries varies from 24 to 75 feet, and the height from 9 to 100 feet. The *Guacharo* feeds on certain fruits, called by the natives *mataca* and *coradonga*, and it is said that the seeds of these fruits, after having undergone the process of digestion by the birds, acquire great medicinal properties. The birds' manure is as good as guano. The natives preserve the fat of the young birds, from which they make an excellent quality of lard.

The *Guacharo* tobacco, which grows limitedly in the vicinity of the cave, is famous among the native smokers on account of its peculiar

and delicate aroma. Foreigners who have smoked this tobacco have pronounced it as remarkably good, comparing favorably with the best in the world.

The coast of the former State of Bermúdez is on the Caribbean Sea and has gulfs, islands, peninsulas, and seaports, some of them ranking among the principal ports of the Republic. The principal gulfs are the Paria or Triste Gulf, to the east; the Cariaco, to the north, and the small Santa Fe Gulf, near Barcelona. The peninsulas are: Paria, a very fertile body of land, irrigated by several streams, and Araya, arid and dry, where the inexhaustible Araya salt mines, the property of the National Government, are found. The principal islands are Píritu, Borracha, Chimanas, Picudas, and Caracas, in the Caribbean Sea, and Brea, Vagre, Venado, and Guanipe, in the Gulf of Paria.

The most important seaports are Guanta, which is the port for Barcelona; Cumaná and Carúpano, on the Caribbean Sea; Güiria, on the Gulf of Paria, and Caño Colorado, near the same gulf. The foregoing are all ports open to foreign commerce, while the ports of Píritu, Clarrines, Río Caribe, and Cariaco are only open to the coastwise trade. The principal river ports are Barrancas and Soledad, on the Orinoco.

The only railroad in the State is the one from the Naricual coal mines to Guanta, passing through Barcelona. There are also wagon roads and mule paths in the State, which maintains regular communication with the rest of the Republic by means of a well-regulated system of mails and telegraphs.

The climate is generally warm, with exception of the mountain ranges, where there are several cool places. The region is generally healthy, excepting some few localities, where malaria is prevalent on account of the swamps produced by the overflow of the rivers.

The State is remarkable for its agricultural wealth, which consists mainly in the cultivation of cotton, tobacco, corn, cocoanuts, and all kinds of produce. Cacao, coffee, and sugar cane are also cultivated, but the lack of good roads to the coast has confined the raising of these products to the actual necessities of the home consumption. Coffee for export is cultivated near the coast. There was a time when cattle breeding was the principal and richest industry in the State, the abundance of cattle being such that beef cattle were sold at \$2 each, and packing houses were established for the exportation of salt beef to Buenos Ayres and the West Indies. The best grazing lands are situated in the vicinity of the Orinoco, and cattle are exported through the ports of Barrancas and Soledad to the West Indies.

Game and fish are also abundant and the subject of profitable industries. The State exports a large quantity of deer skins.

The principal mineral wealth of the State consists of the inexhaustible Araya salt mines and the coal mines of Naricual. There are several other minerals, which will be mentioned in the chapter devoted to this subject.

There are several industries established in the State, among others the manufacture of sugar and brandies, soap and candles, cocoanut oil mills, pottery works, etc.

The following are the principal cities in the State:

Barcelona, capital of the old State of Bermúdez (now capital of the State of Barcelona), founded in 1617. At the beginning of the century its population numbered 16,000 inhabitants, while at the present time it only has about 9,000 inhabitants. This decrease in population is due to the hardships suffered by this city during the war of independence, being on five consecutive occasions the theater of the most bloody battles fought during the war. Barcelona is 19 kilometers distant from the port of Guanta and 4 kilometers from El Rincón. The city is situated on the banks of the river Neveri, at the border of the richest and most extensive plains of the State, which are considered the best pasture land of Venezuela. The streets in the city are wide and straight. There are several fine buildings, among others the Government House, the theater, market, two hospitals, the Masonic Temple, and several churches and educational institutions. The Guanta and Naricual Railroad passes through the city. Barcelona is an important commercial market and maintains valuable trade relations with foreign countries.

Cumaná, capital of the new State of Sucre, is the oldest city in America. It was founded by Gonzáles Ocampo in 1520, forty-five years before St. Augustine, Florida, and eighty-seven years before the landing at Jamestown, Virginia. Cumaná is 53 feet above the sea, 1 mile from the Gulf of Cariaco, on the banks of the Manzanares River, the most important in that region. The population is estimated at 10,000 souls. Communication with the gulf is by means of a tramway. Cumaná is a seaport, and has a flourishing foreign commerce.

Although the climate is warm it produces excellent grapes, which are barely cultivated now, but which ought to be a veritable source of wealth, as this branch of production has a good market, not only at home but also in the adjacent Antilles and the United States. Competent persons who have studied the Cumaná grapes consider them superior to those of Málaga in Spain, or, at least, as good as the best of the Peninsula.

The special quality of the grapes is noted in the pineapples, which are delicious. The whole surrounding land is fertile and adapted to the culture of tropical fruits and plants, such as coffee, cacao, bananas, oranges, etc.

The mean annual temperature of Cumaná is 27.45° C., the minimum $23\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, and the maximum 31.40° . The city, being situated on ground of volcanic formation, is exposed to frequent earthquakes.

Cumaná is the birthplace of the grand marshal of Ayacucho, Antonio José de Sucre, who, after the memorable campaign of Peru, became the first President of the nascent Republic of Bolivia, from which position he retired to private life. He was assassinated on the mountain of Berruecos, in Colombia, on his way from Bogotá to his residence in Quito.

Carúpano, one of the principal ports of the eastern coast of Venezuela, enjoying an extensive foreign commerce, is a city of 8,000 inhabitants. Its principal industry is the manufacture of the famed Carúpano rum, and also of straw hats and other articles made of native fibers. There are some mineral deposits in the vicinity of the city, mainly sulphur and coal. The region is mainly agricultural. Carúpano has a foreign consular corps and a chamber of commerce.

Maturín has over 4,000 inhabitants. It is one of the most important cities in the State, situated on the Guarapiche River, 22 miles from the port of Caño Colorado. Maturín is an important market for the interior trade, traffic being over wagon roads, while through the port of Caño Colorado and Cumaná its foreign commerce is done. The district is rich in agricultural products and cattle.

The other important towns are Rio Caribe, a seaport and growing town; Guiria, also a seaport of a certain importance; Aragua de Barcelona; Oumanacóa, famed for its tobacco, and other minor towns.

STATE OF BOLÍVAR.

The boundaries of the State of Bolívar, situated in the southern portion of the Republic, are as follows: On the north, the old States of Bermúdez and Miranda and the State of Zamora; on the east, the Atlantic Ocean and British Guiana; on the south, the Territory of Amazonas and the United States of Brazil, and on the west the Republic of Colombia. The State numbers over 85,000 inhabitants, among them being numerous Indian tribes dwelling on the banks of the large rivers. The State is divided into ten districts.

A branch of the Andes chain, the Imataca and the Parima ranges, runs through the State in an easterly, westerly, and southeasterly

direction. The region west of the mouth of the Apure River embraces vast plains, covered with fine pasture, where large cattle herds graze. The eastern region contains several mountain ranges separated by prairies, large and numerous streams, thick forests, and the many creeks or caños forming the Orinoco Delta.

The principal river in the State, which is also the largest in Venezuela and the third in size of the continent, is the Orinoco River, whose head waters are in the Parima Range, has a length of 2,374 kilometers, 2,000 of which are navigable. The Orinoco has 458 affluents and empties through 17 mouths, which form its delta with an area of 20,000 square kilometers. The other principal rivers in the State are the Apure, formed by the Uribante and the Sarare rivers, 1,187 kilometers in length, of which 1,043 kilometers are navigable. It empties into the Orinoco, as do the rivers Meta and Araure, both rising in Colombia; the Caura and Caroní, all partly navigable. The other rivers are the Cuyuni, emptying into the Esequibo; the Paragua, flowing into the Caroní, and the Mazaruni, emptying into the Ouyuni. All these rivers are navigable in part.

The river ports doing the largest commerce are Ciudad Bolívar, the capital of the State, on the Orinoco, and San Fernando de Apure, on the river of the same name. There are other river ports of lesser importance on the rivers Orinoco, Apure, and Arauca.

The principal islands in the State are Tórtola, Imataca, and Can-grejo. Among the many lagoons of the State the principal are Término, near the Colombian frontier; Cabullarito, near the mouth of the Apure River; Sarare, and Casacoima.

Interior communication is effected by the several waterways of the State, by highroads and mule paths, which connect Ciudad Bolívar with Guacipati and San Félix. With British Guiana, Trinidad, and other West India islands and foreign countries, as well as with the ports on the Venezuelan coast, communication is established by sea. Several steamboats plow the Orinoco, the Apure, and the affluents of the State of Zamora. A Colombian steamboat connects Ciudad Bolívar with the Meta River of Colombia; an American company has a regular line of steamers running between Ciudad Bolívar and the British colony of Trinidad. A French steamer carries cattle from the Orinoco to the neighboring foreign colonies, and a Venezuelan line has established communication between Ciudad Bolívar and several points on the coast. There are, besides these steamers, several sailing vessels and large canoes employed in this traffic.

The climate is generally warm. The regions covered by the thick forests or subject to inundation are unhealthy.

The agricultural products are reduced to the cultivation, on a small scale, of coffee, sugar cane, and produce. Tonka beans, rubber, and several medicinal plants, gums, and oleaginous plants grow wild. The main agricultural wealth of the State is cattle breeding.

Game is so abundant that the "llaneros," or plainsmen, live on it, and rarely, if ever, kill their cattle for food. There is a species of white heron, whose plumage is in great demand abroad. Special game laws have been passed in order to preserve these birds. Fish are also most abundant.

The richest mining region in Venezuela is the Yuruari, in the State of Bolívar, where gold mines abound. The celebrated "Callao" mine might be mentioned, among others, as only a few years ago it astonished the world by its enormous production. There are also other mines and minerals which will be mentioned in the chapter devoted to the subject.

The principal cities are:

Ciudad Bolívar, capital of the State. Up to the year 1846 it was known as Angostura, which name was given it because that was the narrowest part of the Orinoco River, it being scarcely 800 feet wide at this point. It was founded by Mendoza, in 1764, on the right bank of the river, 373 miles from the mouth, at an elevation of 187 feet above the sea. Its population numbers over 15,000 inhabitants. The climate is warm, though healthful. It is a great commercial center for the whole Guiana region, and the port through which all the gold is exported. It maintains steamship communication with the neighboring English island of Trinidad which is the point of connection for the steamship lines for Europe and the United States and the Venezuelan ports east of La Guaira. Ciudad Bolívar is the starting point for the steamers furnishing the mail, passenger, and freight service to all points on the upper Orinoco and between Apure and Nutrias. It will also be the starting point for the line which has been projected for some time past, and which will have to be established eventually to communicate with the Meta River and ports of the great valley of Casanare, as far as Cabuyaro, above the confluence with the Upía River, distant 120 miles in a straight line from Bogotá.

Ciudad Bolívar has a university, the college of the first class formerly there having been raised to the dignity of a university many years ago. The market, cathedral, Masonic temple, custom-house, and theater are the most important buildings.

By the bull of His Holiness Pius VI the bishopric of this city was created, and to-day a bishop governs the diocese with the corresponding chapter.

During the war of independence a newspaper was always maintained in Ciudad Bolívar in the interest of the country.

In 1813 the first republican congress met in Angostura, creating the Republic of Colombia. The city has all modern improvements.

San Fernando de Apure has over 3,000 inhabitants. It is situated on the Apure River and maintains an important river and land traffic, mainly in cattle. This city is the stopping point of all the steamers plying between the Orinoco and the Apure. This is the largest cattle-producing district.

Guacipati and Upata, having about 1,300 inhabitants each, are noteworthy on account of their gold mines and the former from the fact that the school of mining is established there.

STATE OF CARABOBO.

This State bears the name of the celebrated battle of Carabobo, which insured the triumph of the cause of Venezuela's independence. The State is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea, on the east by the former State of Miranda, on the south by the State of Zamora, and on the west by the State of Lara. Its population exceeds 200,000 inhabitants. The State is composed of seven districts divided into municipalities.

The Coast chain crosses the State and branches off into two ranges, forming the littoral or coast range and the interior range. There are several noteworthy peaks, varying in altitude from 3,000 to 4,500 feet. Beautiful valleys rich in cultivated areas are found in these ranges; among the largest and most fertile are the valleys of Nirgua, Montalbán, Chirgua, and Ocumare.

The largest portion of the Valencia or Tacarigua lake is situated within the boundaries of this State. The altitude of the lake above the sea is about 1,200 feet, its area being 66 square miles, and contains 22 islands, 15 of which belong to this State and 7 to the former State of Miranda. Twenty-two rivers empty into the lake. The waters of the lake are brackish. Fish are abundant, but they are insipid. Formerly the waters of the lake came very near Valencia, the capital of the State, but they have receded about 10 kilometers, on account of evaporation and the destruction of the forests where the rivers feeding it have their head waters.

There are no navigable rivers in the State. The longest rivers are the Paito, Chirgua, Ocumare, Cata, and Cuyagua. The Yaracuí River, which is the boundary between Carabobo and Lara, is navigable for steam launches, light-draft and flat-bottom steamers.

The coast of the State is on the Caribbean Sea. The principal open port is Puerto Cabello; the ports for the coasting trade are Turamo and Ocumare de la Costa. There are on the coast four large coves, an equal number of islands, and numerous small islands.

The means of communication are various. There are in the State over 100 kilometers of railroads, over 500 kilometers of highroads, and over 900 kilometers of mule paths. Valencia, the capital city, is connected by rail with its principal port, Puerto Cabello, and with the capital of the Republic. It is also connected with Caracas, Puerto Cabello, San Carlos de Cojedes, Nirgua, and Güigüe by wagon road.

The climate of the State is generally healthful. It is temperate in the mountains, where a perpetual spring is enjoyed. There are unhealthy places near the coast and in the vicinity of the lake.

The principal source of wealth of the State is agriculture—coffee and cacao being the main products. Sugar cane, cotton, tobacco, and produce are also cultivated. In the neighborhood of Lake Valencia excellent grazing and well-cultivated lands are found, the quality of the sugar cane produced in this section being remarkably fine. Various fine woods, medicinal plants, and game are found in the mountains.

The State also possesses several renowned thermal springs, among others the Trincheras springs, the hottest in Venezuela and recognized as the best of their kind in the world.

The principal minerals are gold, copper, iron, coal, marble, and others mentioned in the chapter devoted to the subject.

The principal cities are:

Valencia, capital of the State and the second city of Venezuela in point of importance, population (30,000 inhabitants) special central location and fertile surroundings, was founded in 1555, twelve years before Caracas, by Alonzo Díaz Moreno. It is 2 miles from Lake Tacarigua. It lies 472 meters above sea level, in an extensive valley, circumscribed by hills of greater or less height, which within a short distance join the chain of the Andes, to which they belong, and from which, in reality, they start. The temperature, though warm, is nearly always equable and mild. The annual average is 24.75° centigrade. It is well provided with excellent water, brought from a distance through pipes.

A street-car line traverses the city in all directions, starting from the Camoruco station, the station of the Puerto Cabello Railroad, on the outskirts of the city. This road runs a distance of 54 kilometers to Valencia. It there unites with the line for the capital, passing by the towns of Guayos, Guacara, San Joaquín, Maracay, and the celebrated and pleasant valleys of Aragua, Turmero, San Mateo, Victoria, and Consejo, thereafter climbing the high mountains of the cordillera, passing by the towns of Teques and Antímano, until it enters the great valley of Caracas, the seat of the capital and of the Government of Venezuela.

In the environs of Valencia are to be found under cultivation the most fertile lands of the country. The layer of vegetal soil around Lake Tacarigua is very deep and productive. The use of the plow is barely necessary to clear the weeds and turn the soil, and for modern methods of cultivation.

The electric light and telephonic communication have been introduced in Valencia of late years.

The city of Valencia is a great commercial center. Houses engaged in the exporting and importing trade of Puerto Cabello have transferred their warehouses to the former place, leaving agencies to receive and ship imported merchandise and the domestic articles sent in exchange to their foreign correspondents.

Halfway on the railroad between Valencia and Puerto Cabello are the famed thermal springs, popularly called *Aguas calientes* (hot water), at the station of Las Triucherías, whence go guests from all parts of the country and even from the neighboring colonies, owing to the medicinal qualities of the waters. They rise to 206° F., perhaps the hottest in the world save those of Urijino, Japan, which reach 212° on the same scale.

There is a bathing establishment here, managed by competent parties, and guests desiring to remain for a season will find commodious quarters and a good table.

The city has some handsome buildings, among others the Cathedral, the Capitol, the Municipal Theater, the University, several educational institutions, hospitals, etc.

The city has many rich and important business houses, cotton mills, sawmills, foundries, etc.

Puerto Cabello, perhaps the second port of the Republic, excepting Maracaibo, is situated on the Caribbean Sea, about 45 miles from Valencia and 65 miles from La Guaira. Population, over 15,000 inhab-

itants. Its bay is calm and so safe that the discoverers gave it the name of Puerto Cabello (literally Port of the Hair), meaning that vessels might be considered so safe against the dangers of wind and sea that a hair was enough to hold them. The largest ocean steamers can come alongside the piers. Puerto Cabello is connected by rail with Valencia and Caracas. The city has some handsome buildings, among others the Custom-house, the City Hall, the Theater, the Hospital, the railroad depot, two fine churches, and several beautiful private residences. The city also has all modern improvements. Its climate is warm and healthy. Sea bathing is excellent. In the vicinity of the city many beautiful cottages and fine plantations are found.

Montalbán, capital of the district of the same name, is a flourishing town, remarkable on account of the excellent quality of its coffee. Has some fine buildings and a population of 4,000 inhabitants.

Ocumare de la Costa, on the shores of the Caribbean Sea, has a prosperous trade with Puerto Cabello and La Guaira. Agriculture is its main source of wealth, the Ocumare cacao being an excellent product, commanding the highest prices in foreign markets. Population, over 2,000 inhabitants.

Guacara has a population of over 3,000 inhabitants, and is connected by rail and by wagon roads with Valencia, only about 7 miles distant. There are some fine buildings in the town. The district is noted for its fine coffee and sugar-cane plantations, although its principal products are tobacco and cotton. Cattle breeding is also one of the principal industries, the Mariara grazing lands being considered the best in the State.

The other principal towns are the capitals of the several districts.

STATE OF FALCÓN.

The State of Falcón, situated in the northwestern portion of Venezuela, has the following boundaries: on the north and east the Caribbean Sea; on the south the State of Lara, and on the west the State of Zulia. Population, over 140,000 inhabitants. The State is divided into eleven departments, made up of municipalities.

The Coast range or chain, whose highest peak is on the San Luis range, measuring 3,600 feet in height, runs through the State. The most fertile lands in the State are situated in its eastern portion, but on account of the thick forests and swampy lands of that region the climate is unhealthy. This accounts for the small population of such a rich region. There are found, toward the coast, fine grazing prairies.

The western portion of the territory contains an immense barren plain or savanna, extending along the coast as far as Lake Maracaibo. Notwithstanding this, the principal mass of population in the State is found here, engaged in the raising of goats, sheep, mules, and donkeys, which feed on the few products of the soil, breeding so rapidly that this has come to be the main source of wealth of that vast territory.

The principal rivers are the Tocuyo and the Aroa, both emptying into the Caribbean Sea. The Tocuyo River has in this State about 70 miles of navigable course, and the Aroa about 40 miles of navigable waters. The latter at certain seasons of the year is not navigable on account of the scarcity of its flow. There are, besides these rivers, about thirty others of little or no importance, with the exception of the rivers Mitare and Güeque. The inhabitants of the coast, from Cumarebo to the State of Zulia, dig pools, where water is deposited during the rainy season to be used for all purposes during the dry season.

The coast of the State of Falcón runs from the mouth of Caño Oribono, on the west, to the mouth of River Yaracuy, on the east. The coast is generally clean and contains numberless anchorages.

The most remarkable peninsula of Venezuela, the Paraguaná, is found in this State; the main gulf of the coast is the Coro Gulf, the third in size in the Republic. There are ten large and a great many small islands, and many rocks or keys off the coast. The largest islands are the keys near the mouth of the Aroa River, in the Gulf of Coro.

The means of communication in the State are, besides the mail and telegraph systems, the railroad from the State of Lara to Tucacas, the highway from Coro to La Vela, a tramway running to and from these two cities, the waterways of the rivers Tocuyo and Aroa, and a great number of mule paths.

The climate of the State is generally healthful. The temperature is cool and the climate salubrious in the high ranges of mountains, while it is warm and unhealthy in the regions bathed by the Tocuyo and Aroa rivers. The lower ranges are warm and healthful.

The principal agricultural products of the State are coffee, cotton, sugar cane, cacao, and tobacco. Cochineal is abundant in some places. The breeding industry numbers several herds of goats, sheep, donkeys, mules, and some heads of beef cattle.

Pearls, turtle shell, and beautiful snail shells, which have a certain demand, are found on the western coast of Paraguaná. There are also fine fish.

The State has some rich salt, coal, iron, and copper mines.

The industries of the State are represented by the products of sugar cane, goat cheese, hammocks, straw hats, etc.

The principal cities are the following:

Coro, capital of the State, with a population of about 9,000 inhabitants. This is the oldest city in the continent, excepting Cumaná. Coro was founded by Ampués in 1527, and for many years was the seat of the captaincy general of Venezuela—up to 1776, when it was transferred to Caracas. Coro is 108 feet above the level of the sea, and contains some fine buildings, among others the government building, the church, which is the oldest in Venezuela; the market, the old Episcopal palace, and the old convent of the Franciscan Friars; several public squares, colleges, hospitals, etc., and a splendid aqueduct for the water supply of the city.

La Vela, capital of the District of Colina, with a population of over 2,000 inhabitants. This is the principal port of the State, through which very valuable commercial relations are maintained with foreign countries. Traffic through this port is very active with the Dutch Colony of Curaçao, and with the Venezuelan ports of Maracaibo, Puerto Cabello, and La Vela.

Cumarebo, an important port for the coastwise trade. Population, 2,000 inhabitants.

Capadare, a small town whose inhabitants are devoted to the cultivation of the Capadare tobacco, one of the best products of its kind in South America.

Tucacas, a small but important port, outlet for the products of the State of Lara, and shipping port for the copper ore from the celebrated Aroa mines.

There are several other towns of lesser importance.

STATE OF LARA.

The boundaries of the State of Lara are as follows: The State of Falcón on the north; the States of Carabobo and Zamora on the east; the States of Zamora and Los Andes on the south, and on the west the States of Zulia and Falcón. The only point of this State on the coast is the mouth of the Yaracuy River, through which a large traffic is done in steam and sailing vessels, to and from Puerto Cabello. The population of the State is about 250,000 inhabitants.

Two of the Venezuelan chains of mountains run across the State, the Andes chain and the coast chain, which meet at the Altar Moun-

tain. The highest points in the State are on the Andes chain, the peaks or "páramos" of Cambimbú, Jabón, and Rosas, each rising over 9,000 feet and forming the boundary line with the former State of Los Andes. Among the valleys formed by this range the following are noticeable on account of their astonishing fertility: San Felipe, Yariagua, Tocuyo, and Curarigua.

The principal rivers in the State are the Tocuyo and Yaracuy rivers. The former has its head waters in the Cambimbú Peak and empties into the Caribbean Sea. Its course is over 230 miles long, 45 of which are navigable in this State and about 70 in the State of Falcón. The Yaracuy River has its head waters in the Nirgua range and empties into the Caribbean Sea, being navigable from the boundary with the State of Carabobo. The other important rivers in the State are Acarigua, Barquisimeto, Rio Claro, Sarare, and Chabosquén. The only lake worth mentioning in the State is the Cabra, between Carora and Barbacoas, about 12 miles in circumference.

The means of communication in the State are, besides mail and telegraph facilities, the railroads from Barquisimeto and from Aroa to Hacha, where they connect, a single line going to Tucacas; the highroads from Barquisimeto to Tocuyo, San Felipe, La Luz, Duaca, San Carlos de Cojedes; several mule paths, which cross the State in all directions, and the Yaracuy and Tocuyo waterways.

The climate of the State is generally healthful. Malaria is prevalent in the swampy districts. Cold is excessive in the "páramos" and very warm in the lower districts.

Agriculture and stock raising are very productive, as irrigated lands and natural pasture grounds are abundant. The principal agricultural products are coffee, wheat, sugar cane, cacao, indigo, tobacco, cotton, barley, and several others. The production of goats, sheep, mules, and donkeys is remarkable and the trade profitable. The number of beef cattle raised in the district is considerable.

The richest mines in the district are the celebrated copper mines of Aroa, which have been profitably exploited for many years. The mineral is transported by rail to the port of Tucacas, thence to Puerto Cabello on steamboats. There are also several other minerals in the State, as mentioned in the chapter devoted to the subject.

The principal industries of the State are the manufacture of morocco leather, coarse cotton cloth, woolen blankets, hides and skins, hammocks, flour, sugar-cane products, etc.

The State is divided into eleven districts, formed by municipalities.

The principal cities are:

Barquisimeto, capital of the State, which has about 40,000 inhabitants. It was founded in 1552 by Don Juan Martínez de Villegas, in a great open valley, 1,711 feet above the level of the sea. It is an important commercial center, having great facilities for communication with the States of Carabobo, Zamora, and Falcón. It is also connected by rail with the important port of Tucacas, thus enjoying great trade relations with Puerto Cabello. The city is the seat of an episcopal chair, has many colleges and schools, both public and private, hospitals, etc.

The main buildings are the Government Palace, the barracks, the market, the cathedral and several other churches. Water reaches the city through an excellent system of tubing.

Agriculture and stock raising are the main industries of the district.

San Felipe has over 7,000 inhabitants, several fine public buildings, schools, and other educational institutions. The district of the same name, of which this city is the capital, is noted for its production of coffee, cacao, its grazing lands and minerals.

Tocuyo, capital of the District of Tocuyo, on the river of that name, is one of the oldest and most important cities in the State, with a population of 6,000 inhabitants. It has some fine public buildings and private residences. The district of Tocuyo is the largest wheat-growing country in Venezuela, its other principal products being coffee, sugar cane, cacao, and stock.

Carora is the capital of the Torres district. Its elevation is 1,132 feet, resting on the river bearing its name, and with a population of 6,000 souls. The climate is warm, but healthful. The raising of goats and other domestic animals is carried on very generally. The inhabitants are laborious and supply the neighboring towns and plains with shoes and leather goods in general—such as sole leather, kids, sheepskins, the product of their tanneries—fishing nets, and hammocks. They also supply salt goat meat, beef and mutton and excellent cheese, carrying on an active trade with the other towns of the State and the neighboring districts.

Yaritagua, capital of the Yaritagua district, is 18 miles from Barquisimeto, in a beautiful and extensive valley 1,037 feet above the sea, with a population of 12,000, and is an industrial and commercial center. Coffee, sugar cane, cacao, and above all, tobacco of an excellent quality, which is manufactured by the residents for the trade and consumption of the surrounding towns, are cultivated. There are at least sixteen shops where tobacco is manufactured and prepared for the market.

There are also several other cities and towns of lesser importance.

STATES OF RIVAS, GUÁRICO, AND MIRANDA.

(Formerly State of Miranda.)

This section, the most important in the Republic, embraces an area of 90,000 square kilometers, with a population of over 500,000 inhabitants. Its limits are as follows: It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea, on the east by the former State of Bermúdez, on the south by the State of Bolívar, and on the west by the States of Carabobo and Zamora.

The Coast range crosses the State from west to east, forming two almost parallel ranges, the littoral range that runs along the coast as far as Cape Codera, and the interior or inland range, which, coming south of Lake Valencia, breaks off at Ciudad de Cura and then continues toward the former State of Bermúdez. These two ranges meet at Tucuragua Mountain in the State of Carabobo, and at Meapire in the former State of Bermúdez. Lake Valencia is inclosed between these two ranges, as also are the Aragua and Tuy valleys, the richest and most fertile of the country, and the Caracas Valley. In all these valleys, and on the slope of the mountains, rich cultivated lands, pasture grounds, and forests are found. In a line parallel to the interior range the Galera chain extends, its highest points being the Morros de San Juan, and the Morros de San Sebastián, both over 3,000 feet high. The highest points in the interior range are Platilla and Guairama, over 3,000 feet high, and in the littoral range, the highest being the Naiguatá peak, over 8,400 feet high, the "Silla de Caracas" (Caracas Saddle), nearly 8,000 feet, and Cares and Cálculo, both over 6,000 feet high.

The southern portion of the State is composed of extensive plains where small hills of earth, called "medanos," extensive table-lands, forests, and mountains are found. These plains are covered with grass which is used for pasture for all kinds of live stock. The table-lands afford protection to cattle during the rainy season when the rivers overflow. These inundations are due to the affluents of the Orinoco, which, when it overflows, can not withstand the power of such a strong current, and being unable to empty into the Orinoco, overflow the surrounding country. The "Estero" (marsh) of Camaguán becomes so inundated that a lake over 200 kilometers in circumference is formed, it being necessary then to employ boats for the traffic with the interior and neighboring States. During the dry season the rivers dry up almost completely, while the small streams disappear. When this occurs, cattle are driven to the grazing lands, where there is no scarcity of

water. The highest table-lands in the State are the Santa Clara, Mereyal, Barineses, Aracay, and Requena, and the principal forests Guarive and Tamanaco.

The principal rivers in the State are the Guárico, the most important of all, having its headwaters in the interior range, and emptying into the Orinoco; it is over 300 miles long, over one-half of this course being navigable. The Orituco, over 200 miles in length, navigable for about 130 miles, has its source in the interior range and empties into the Guárico River. The Tuy River, whose head waters are in the Coast range, empties into the Caribbean Sea, has over 180 miles run, and is navigable for about one-half of its course. The Manapire comes from the interior range, flows for over 150 miles, 40 of which are navigable, and empties into the Orinoco. The Tiznado comes from the same range and enters the Portuguesa River; it is partly navigable during the rainy season, and its course is about 125 miles. Besides these and other rivers which form the boundaries of the State, there are 200 more rivers and about 300 streams.

The eastern section of Lake Valencia, between Cabrera and Yuma, belongs to the former State of Miranda. There are several other lakes and lagoons, the principal being the Tacarigua, near Rio Chico, over 100 square miles in extent, and the Arestinga, in Nueva Esparta, about the same size. Fishing is excellent and abundant in both lakes, especially in the Tacarigua.

The coasts of the old State of Miranda are on the Caribbean Sea, from Point Aroa, on the west, to the mouth of Uriche River on the east. There are two capes worthy of notice on this coast—Cape Codera, near Carenero, and Cape Blanco, near La Guayra. The islands on the Caribbean Sea are Margarita or Nueva Esparta, Coche, Cubagua, and Tortuga.

The principal seaports are La Guayra, Rio Chico, Higuerote, and Colombia, on the mainland, and Juan Griego, Porlamar, and Pampatar, on the island of Margarita or Nueva Esparta. The principal river ports are Calabozo, on the Guárico, Camaguán, on the Portuguesa, and Cabruta, on the Orinoco. Lake Valencia has two ports, Punta Larga and Arenal.

The old State of Miranda had over 125 miles of railroads, over 150 miles of highroads, over 500 miles of telegraph wires, over 60 miles of telephone wires, and innumerable mule paths.

The climate is generally healthy. Malaria and other kindred diseases are common in the swampy region, but in the high region of the ranges the climate is most healthful and the temperature more or less cool, according to the different altitudes.

Agriculture and cattle breeding are the principal sources of wealth in the State. The valleys of Aragua and Tuy give excellent coffee, cacao, indigo, cotton, sugar cane, tobacco, precious woods, etc., and have fine pasture lands. There are numberless herds of cattle on the plains, and in the vicinity of the rivers agricultural lands are abundant. The woods and forests are full of game and precious woods, while the lakes give a large variety of fine fish.

There are also minerals to be found in the State, as detailed in the chapter on this subject. Thermal waters are likewise found, the most noteworthy being the springs of San Juan de los Morros, Orituco, Chichiriviche, and Batatal, the latter being boiling water.

The manufacturing industries of the State are several, among others, sugar-cane products, starch, soap, candles, earthenware, etc. Some of the products of the State are exported through the States of Carabobo and Bolívar. The annual exportation of these products amounts to about \$5,500,000, while the imports almost equal this amount.

The following are the principal cities:

Maracay, until recently the capital of the State of Miranda, with a population of over 5,000 inhabitants. It is one of the most important towns of the fertile valleys of Aragua, the founding of which in the seventeenth century is due to Pérez de Almarza. The river bearing its own name supplies it with an abundance of water. It is a short distance from Lake Valencia, 1,479 feet above the sea and 56 miles by rail from Caracas. It is surrounded by rich plantations of sugar cane and other products, besides extensive live-stock ranges.

Stock raising and agriculture are the main industries of the district. The Maracay cheeses are considered the best in the State, and the cacao produced in the district near the Choroni coast is the finest and richest in Venezuela. The principal buildings in the city are the arsenal, the church, and several public buildings and private residences. The city has to-day a fine system of waterworks for the supply of the population, and in its principal square, called Plaza Girardot, a monument has been erected recently in memory of the ten American officers who, under the orders of General Francisco Miranda, left the city and port of Baltimore in an expedition to help in the war of independence against Spain, and were shot by the Spaniards in Puerto Cabello in 1806. The monument is erected on a broad three-step base and is in the form of a quadrilateral obelisk, surmounted by a beautiful bronze eagle with spreading wings. On the eastern and western sides of the monument stand respectively the arms of the United States and of

Venezuela. On the northern side are inscribed the names of the following heroes: Capt. Thomas Donohue, Lieut. Thomas Billop, James Garner, Gustavus Burguel, Charles Johnson, Paul George, Daniel Kemper, Miles T. Hall, John Ferris, and Sublieut. Francis Farquharson. On the southern side is the following inscription: "The Government of the State of Miranda erected this column in 1898."

Ciudad de Cura, generally known by the name of Villa de Cura, which it bore prior to assuming the dignity of a city, is situated 56 miles west of Caracas, a short distance from Lake Valencia. It was founded in 1730 by Don Juan Bolívar y Villegas, and its site is in a beautiful and extensive valley, formed by the spurs of the mountain range encircling it. Two small streams water it. It is 1,600 feet above the sea at the foot of a rocky and precipitous hill. Its temperature is ordinarily between $22\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ to $26\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ C., although on rare occasions it rises to $30\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ or descends to 22° C.

According to the last census the population is over 10,000 souls. Its proximity to the savannas of the Guárico and the surrounding agricultural and grazing sections make of the city of Cura a great commercial and industrial center. At a short distance from it are to be found plantations of sugar cane, coffee, cacao, indigo, cotton, and minor products, as well as herds of cattle, whose produce, such as cheese, hides, etc., are brought to the city for sale.

La Victoria, capital of the new State of Rivas, has, according to the last census, 7,800 inhabitants, and in reality probably many more. It was founded by Francisco Loreto in 1593. It was the theater of several engagements during the war of independence, and is situated in a very advantageous position on excessively fertile soil, 1,500 feet above sea level, 37 miles southeast of Caracas, in the midst of very important plantations of coffee, sugar cane, and minor products. It is one of the most important commercial centers of the Aragua Valley. It has good public and private institutions of learning, and no lack of industrial establishments for the manufacture of cigars, liquors, hempen shoes, carts, soaps, etc.

The telegraph and telephone services are regularly conducted. The railroad from Caracas to Valencia has in this city one of its most important stations. Highroads and mule paths leave the city in all directions. The city is the main market for the products of the fertile Aragua valleys and the mountainous regions surrounding them north and south, the traffic to and from the center and the west of the Republic contributing to its value as a distributing market.

La Guayra, the principal seaport of the Republic, on the Caribbean Sea, was founded in 1588 by Osorio Villegas. The climate of La Guayra is rather warm.

The view of the town from the sea is beautiful. Baron Humboldt compares it with that of Santa Cruz, Teneriffe, in the Canaries. Perhaps there is no other place in the world presenting the phenomenon of a mountain like the Avila, rising perpendicularly above the town to a height of over 8,000 feet above the sea.

Formerly the roadstead of La Guayra rendered the loading and unloading of vessels difficult and unsafe because of the constant heavy swell and the lack of proper wharves where vessels might moor without having to anchor at a great distance from shore, loading and discharging cargo and passengers by means of lighters, until the construction of the sea wall, built under contract by an English company. Work was begun in December, 1885. Experience very soon demonstrated the error in the original plans through the new works being destroyed by the heavy seas. The engineer, Mr. J. S. Houston, assumed charge of the work in 1888, finishing it in 1891. The foundations rest upon masses of concrete, each weighing 150 tons.

The port of La Guayra is connected by rail, by a highroad and a mule path with the capital, Caracas. Among the principal buildings in the city the most noteworthy are the custom-house, the city hall, the theater, the market, etc.

Less than 3 miles east of La Guayra is the town of Macuto, a bathing and pleasure resort, where the sea breeze and the waters of a stream affording an abundant supply of the aqueous element may be enjoyed. Its climate affords those suffering with lung affections the best temperature. The residents of the capital and other places resort here at all times. Aside from the baths in running water beneath arbors formed by magnificent hoary trees, there are public sea baths for the sexes separately, maintained at the expense of the Government. The President of the Republic and his ministers are wont to make short stays here in search of a change of air and release from official cares. Macuto, La Guayra, and Caracas are connected by rail, telegraph, and telephone lines.

Two miles east of La Guayra, on the Caracas railroad, is the town of Maiquetía, having a small stream affording conditions identical with those of Macuto, and with facilities for sea bathing. There the residents of the capital needing a change of air and climate spend periods of recreation. The panorama from the sea is picturesque and most

interesting by reason of the variety of plants, palms, hills, and mountains presented to the view.

Calabozo, capital of the new State of Guárico, is the principal city of the great plains; population, 4,000 inhabitants. It was founded by a company from Guipozcoa in 1730, to serve as a barrier and protection against the incursions of the Indians, who were wont to invade the missionary settlements in those regions intended to carry the gospel and Christian civilization among them. It is located in the southern corner of the savannas on the left bank of the Guárico River, 327 feet above sea level and 124 miles from the capital. It has a temperature like that of Villa de Cura, or, perhaps slightly warmer, though the difference is hardly preceptible. The mean annual temperature is $26\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ C. (80° F.). Its trade with other towns is not wanting in importance, being carried on by the Portuguesa, Apure, Apurito, and Orituco rivers. The city has a sufficient number of public and private schools, and some printing offices and periodical publications. Its trade is principally in cattle, cheese, hides, skins, horses, mules, woods, and liquors.

Petare is the capital of the new State of Miranda. It is situated to the east of the valley of Caracas at the foot of the Silla del Avila, 7 miles by rail from Caracas. The climate is mild and similar in every way to that of the capital, without the disadvantage of the moist winds from the Catia side. Its founder was Don Cristóbal Gil, in 1704. It has good schools and all the advantages accruing from its proximity to the capital of the Republic. It is encircled by plantations of sugar cane, coffee, and minor products. Its population is 3,000, engaged in farming, trade, and domestic industries.

The town of Rio Chico lies 4 miles from the Caribbean Sea, near the Tuy River; its climate is warm and the surrounding lands quite fertile. A great part is under cultivation, producing cacao, coffee, corn, and minor products. The population to-day exceeds 4,000 souls. It is in communication with La Guayra by steamers, making three trips a week. It is only 20 miles from the large harbor of Carenero, with which it connects by rail. The two deposits of coal it contains have not been worked as yet. It is joined by telegraph with the other points of the Republic, and is destined to participate in the bright future which doubtless awaits the region in which it lies.

The other principal cities are the capitals of the several districts.

The island of Margarita, or Nueva Esparta, forms the Margarita section of the new State of Rivas, with an area of 1,000 square kilometers. Macanao and Copei are the highest peaks in the island, both about

3,000 feet high. The island was discovered by Columbus, and settled by Marcelo de Villalobos in 1524.

The name Margarita was given it by the discoverers, owing to the abundance of pearls found there. The titiaros, or minute bananas, of the island are the best of the species. Fish abound around Margarita, and the neighboring islands of Coche, etc. Fishing constitutes one of the principal branches of industry and trade among the natives. Goats and sheep breed admirably on the island, as also the other domestic animals, turkeys, chickens, etc. The latter, as well as eggs, and excellent hammocks, hats, needlework and embroidery, the product of local industry, are brought to the port of La Guayra.

The varieties of fish and shellfish at Margarita and the adjacent islands are astonishing. The view of Margarita from the sea at a certain distance is very interesting. Mount Macanáo, 2,000 feet high, is the first object noticed. A sort of maritime canal, 24 miles wide, separates it from the mainland, which has the best harbors on the east of Venezuela.

The island has three harbors. Pampatar, on the southeast coast, is the best; the other two are Porlamar and Juan Griego. The population of 20,000 souls inhabits the two sections of territory, joined by an isthmus 150 feet wide and 10 feet above the sea. The soil is arid and water scarce. The climate is all that could be desired in point of healthfulness.

The city of Asunción, capital of the island, is situated on the largest of the three small streams it possesses, and which flows in a bed of lamellar amphibole, impregnated with sulphate of iron and magnesia. Its population is about 2,000 inhabitants. The city has some handsome buildings, colleges, schools, etc., and in its vicinity numerous plantations of sugar cane, cocoanuts, etc., are found.

STATE OF ZAMORA.

The State of Zamora, occupying an area of 25,212 square miles, is bounded on the north by the State of Carobobo; on the south by a portion of the State of Bolívar; on the east by the former State of Miranda, and on the west by the former State of Los Andes and the State of Lara. Its population is about 250,000 inhabitants.

The largest portion of the State is composed of vast plains, irrigated by a number of rivers, thus affording excellent lands for cultivation. West of the State runs the chain of the Andes, whose slopes are covered with extensive forests and rich valleys. The highest points in this chain are the peaks or "páramos" of Granate, Santo Domingo,

Apure, and Caldera, ranging from 9,000 to 12,000 feet. The State has three large forests—San Camilo, Ticoporo, and Turén—where all classes of woods are abundant. Mahogany is most abundant in the Turén forest, while cacao grows spontaneously in the Ticoporo forest, on which the wild animals feed.

The principal rivers in the State are the Portuguesa River, which has its source in the Andes of the State of Lara, and empties into the Apure River, having a course of over 250 miles, nearly 180 of which are navigable; the Boconó River, which also comes from the Andes, and is about the same length of the Portuguesa, its navigable waters being about 150 miles; the Guanare and the Caparro, emptying into the Portuguesa and the Apure, respectively, having both about the same length, 230 miles, a half of which is navigable. The other rivers, all partly navigable, are the Suripá, Uribante, Santo Domingo, Pagitey, Canagua, Masparro, and Cojedes. Fishing is most abundant in all these rivers. The river ports having the largest traffic are Nutrias, on the Apure; Baúl, at the confluence of the Cojedes and Tinaco rivers, and Torunos, on the Santo Domingo.

The means of communication in the State are the highway leading to Valencia and the highway to Barquisimeto; some mule paths leading to the former State of los Andes; the river Uribante, flowing into this State, and several other navigable rivers flowing into the Apure, thence to the Orinoco. Several steamboats carry the traffic from the river ports of the State of Zamora to Ciudad Bolívar, touching at the intermediate points. Sail and row boats are also employed in navigation.

The climate of the State is either warm, temperate, or cold, according to the altitude above the sea. The forests and the swampy lands are unhealthy. The high places are cool and healthful. The savannas covered with pasture are also healthful, excepting at the points exposed to the breezes from the marshy regions.

Cattle breeding is the main industry of the State, but there are some districts devoted to agriculture. In the districts of Ospino and Araure swine breeding is of considerable importance, the stock being the best that is raised in Venezuela, and constitutes a trade of considerable magnitude with the State of Carabobo and Caracas. The agricultural products are coffee, cacao, cotton, sugar cane, tobacco, indigo, wheat, and produce of all kinds, and fine woods.

The State has several mines and thermal springs.

The manufacturing industries of the State are sugar-cane products, straw hats, hammocks, earthenware, etc.

The principal cities are:

Guanare, capital of the State, with a population of 5,000 inhabitants, about 3 miles from the river Guanare, through which communication is effected with Ciudad Bolívar and other towns on the borders of the Orinoco and the Apure rivers. The city has some handsome buildings. The waterworks of the city are very fine. The principal commerce of Guanare is with Valencia, Puerto Cabello, and Ciudad Bolívar. The city is 469 feet above the level of the sea, and 218 miles distant from Caracas. It was founded in 1593 by F. de Leon.

San Carlos, capital of the San Carlos District, has a population of about 3,000 inhabitants. It became famous during the war of independence, being one of the cities that suffered more the ravages of the war. It is 384 feet above the sea, has some fine buildings, and occupies an excellent position as a commercial center.

Barinas, capital of the district of the same name, has about 2,500 inhabitants, and is situated on the Santo Domingo River, which serves as a means of communication with Ciudad Bolívar. It is to-day in a prosperous condition, due to its excellent position as a commercial town and to the fertility of its grazing lands, where cattle are abundant.

Ospino, capital of the district bearing the same name, has about 3,000 inhabitants. It is an agricultural town, swine breeding being its principal industry. It has good roads leading to Valencia, Guanare, and other towns.

Acarigua, the capital of the Acarigua District, has over 3,000 inhabitants, and is noted for the manufacture of straw hats, called "jipijapa," which are exported in large quantities to foreign lands. Not far from this city is the town of Araure, with about 200 inhabitants. Both towns, before long, will form only one city.

Nutrias, capital of the Sosa District, is on the Apure River, being the most important river port in the State.

There are, besides these cities, several others—Tinaco, Tinaquillo, Pao, Baúl, and others of lesser importance, all noted for agricultural products.

STATE OF ZULIA.

The State of Zulia is situated in the northwestern part of Venezuela. It is bounded on the north by the Caribbean Sea, on the east by the States of Falcón and Lara and part of the old State of Los Andes; and on the south by the old State of Los Andes and a part of the Republic of Colombia. It covers a superficial area of 70,000 square kilometers.

Including 60,082 Goagiro Indians still independent and uncivilized. The population is 157,800.

A part of the lands of the State of Zulia are covered with extensive forests of precious woods and mountain ranges, where all kinds of tropical plants may be cultivated.

The Perijá and Siruma range belong to the State of Zulia. The former is a prolongation of the Pamplona range in Colombia, which ends in the Peninsula of Goagira. It has an elevation of over 1,000 meters at its highest point. The Siruma range at the eastern end of the State of Zulia, where it touches that of Falcón, forms a series of branches down to Lake Maracaibo. The Empalado Mountain, which is the highest point, is 700 meters high.

It is estimated that more than 200 rivers and smaller streams water the State and empty into the lake. The principal streams contributing their waters to the lake are the Catatumbo, Zulia, Motatán, Escalante, and Socui. The Catatumbo is over 300 kilometers in length and navigable for more than 200. On the left bank are plantations of cacao and lesser products. Domestic articles and foreign goods imported through the Maracaibo custom-house are transported by the Zulia and the Catatumbo rivers.

At the point where the Zulia flows into the Catatumbo is observable the phenomenon of incessant lightning, which the natives call the Maracaibo beacon, and which at times may be seen from the Gulf of Maracaibo at sea, before crossing the bar.

The Motatán River rises in the wilderness of Mucuchíes, and runs a distance of 300 kilometers, of which 100 are navigable from the lake up. It affords a means of communication with the Trujillo section of the State of Los Andes.

The Escalante River is also navigable. It rises in the snowy height of Yegüines in the section of Táchira, State of Los Andes, being navigable for more than 100 kilometers.

The Socui has its source in the Perijá range, and is called the Limón near its entrance into the Sinamaica lagoon. It has a length of 200 kilometers and is navigable for half that distance. Coconut palms and corn plantations abound on the meadows of this river.

The Tarra and Chamas rivers are also navigable in part and tributary to the lake.

Lake Maracaibo, the largest in Venezuela, covers an area of over 125 miles in length by about 80 miles in breadth, and is surrounded by mountain ranges. The lake receives the waters of 500 and more rivers

and rivulets, over 500 creeks, and communicates with the sea through 13 mouths, which allow the discharge of a large quantity of the waters of the lake into it, while permitting the inrush of the salt water with the tides and the winds. The inward and outward rush of the waters of the sea and the lake is done with great violence. By reason of this inrush into the lake, the water is brackish from its mouth to the city of Maracaibo and sometimes farther in. The rest of the lake is fresh water, which, although not as sweet as river water, is, however, used for domestic consumption and for drinking purposes. During the rainy season all the body of water of the lake is fresh, due to the overflow of the rivers emptying into it, and to the rain falling directly in the lake.

At the entrance to the lake there are several islands formed by the earth and sand dragged by the current of the waters, which have been accumulating for centuries. The principal islands are San Carlos, Bajo Seco, and Zapara, the first mentioned being the largest, and the second the most recently formed. San Carlos is about 25 miles in length by about 2 miles in breadth, having at its southern extremity the Fortress of San Carlos. The island of Toas and several other small islands are inside of the lake.

The principal lagoons in the State are the Zulia lagoon, the Laguneta, and Sinamaica, all navigable for small craft. The Sinamaica lagoon has some Indian towns whose huts are built on piles above the water, communication being made in canoes. The Indians live thus to be free from the mosquitoes and to be able to fish with more ease.

Between the islands of Bajo Seco and Zapara lies the Maracaibo bar, and between San Carlos and Bajo Seco is the old bar. The entrance to the lake is generally called the Sack of Maracaibo, and lies between Point Espada in the peninsula of Goagira, and Point Macolla in the Paraguaná Peninsula. The mouths of the lake are south of the Gulf.

The principal ports are Maracaibo, Altagracia, Gibraltar, and La Ceiba, the latter belonging to the old State of Los Andes. The Gulf ports are Tucacas and Cojoro, in the peninsula of Goagira. The principal river ports are San Carlos del Zulia, on the Escalante River, and Encontrados, on the Catatumbo.

The means of communication with the interior are the navigable rivers, the lake, the mule paths leading to all points in the interior, a few miles of railroad from Encontrados to La Fría, and from San Carlos del Zulia to Mérida.

The climate in the State of Zulia is generally healthful, excepting such regions as are covered with thick forests or marshy lands. Heat is constant, though mitigated by the north and south winds.

Game and several species of fish abound in the lakes and rivers, forming a part of the industry and trade of the country.

Sugar cane, cocoanuts, bananas, corn, and a great variety of tropical fruits are produced in the State. The annual product of 74 sugar plantations in the State, 50 of which have iron sugar mills and 24 wooden, is estimated at 800,000 bolívares (about \$160,000).

The production of cocoanuts is estimated at 17,250,000, with a total estimated value of 5,000,000 bolívares (about \$1,000,000). This nut grows on the banks of the lake, where its oil is extracted and the refuse used for fattening swine.

The annual production of corn is calculated to be 86,000 fanegas; of bananas, 11,000,000 bunches; of cacao, 102,000 kilograms; of rice, 100,000 kilograms; of tobacco, 9,000 kilograms, and of cotton, 4,000 kilograms.

The coffee exported from Maracaibo is produced in Los Andes and Colombia, the production of the State not being great. Besides the articles named there are others which contribute to the trade of the State, such as beans, yucca and its products, squashes, etc.

Among the products of spontaneous growth, freely exploited without cultivation, the following must be mentioned, viz, divi-divi (*caesalpinia cor.*), fustic, mangrove wood, and copaiba, which yield over 750,000 bolívares (about \$150,000) annually.

Cattle breeding produces over 30,000 heads of cattle and nearly 200,000 "arrobas" (about 5,000,000 pounds) of cheese per annum. Goats and poultry are also raised in large numbers.

Fish and game, as already stated, are most abundant, the yearly product of the fishing industry being calculated at 150,000 bolívares (about \$30,000), and hunting yields about 300,000 bolívares (about \$60,000).

The State of Zulia is also rich in mineral products; among others asphalt, coal, and petroleum. There are several salt beds in the State; the principal being Salina Rica, Sinamaica, and Oribor. Further information on the subject will be found in the chapter devoted to mines.

The State has 8 districts, divided into municipalities.

Maracaibo, capital of the State, is one of the most important and progressive cities in the Republic, with a population of over 35,000 inhabitants. It is situated on the western shore of Lake Maracaibo and was founded in 1571 by Alonzo de Pacheco, who gave it the name

of Nueva Zamora. Its harbor is extensive and safe, and is visited daily by a large number of steam and sail vessels, carrying the products of the several districts of the State, and from Los Andes and the State of Santander in Colombia. Maracaibo maintains most valuable commercial relations with foreign markets, with the interior, and with Colombia, it being the port of transit for goods intended for Colombia. The Red "D" Line Steamship Company, of New York, has a steamer making regular trips from its home port direct to Maracaibo.

From Maracaibo hundreds of small craft, suitable for shallow water, daily start and carry on the trade on the coast and rivers tributary to the lake.

It is the starting point also for passenger and freight steamers and the railroad lines of the Trujillo and Táchira sections of the State of Los Andes, which are gaining ground and extending rail communication with the remotest regions in the interior of the country.

According to data received from the Venezuelan Legation in Washington, the number of schools supported by the State of Zulia is now 56, attended by 1,879 pupils, at a yearly expense of 38,496 bolívares.

Of the other schools, 45 are national, supported by the Federal Government. They are attended by 2,114 children. There are 36 private schools, some only preparatory, with an attendance of 720 pupils.

The University of Zulia and the Bolívar, Cagigal, and Sacred Heart of Jesus colleges, the Commercial Institute of Zulia, and Academy of Our Lady of Lourdes, the Immaculate Conception, and San Luis Gonzaga are not included among the schools mentioned.

Six hundred pupils receive instruction in these latter institutions.

The State supports a public library; the University of Zulia another, and there are besides the libraries belonging to the mutual aid and members' aid societies.

The revenues of the State during the fiscal year 1894-95 reached 2,219,177.10 bolívares; the expenditures during the same period were 2,209,279.62 bolívares.

There are two clubs in the city, 5 hotels, 17 inns, and 24 restaurants.

The most important buildings of the city are the public market, the Executive Mansion, Legislative Palace, municipal building, the Baralt theater, University, new jail, and the six churches—the Parochial, la Concepción, San Juan de Dios, San Francisco, Santa Ana, and Santa Lucía.

In the two public plazas of the city are several statues of General Rafael Urdaneta, one of the most conspicuous champions of the war of independence, and of Don Rafael María Baralt, an eminent *littérateur*,

born in Maracaibo, who wrote the history of Venezuela, and died in Madrid, being a member of the Royal Spanish Academy.

During the year 1895, 4,191 passengers landed at the port of Maracaibo, and 4,164 sailed from it.

There were entered and cleared at the custom-house 21 steamers, 25 schooners, 5 barks, 8 brigantines, and 1 sloop, all from foreign ports. These figures do not include the lake and river steamers, nor the schooners and small craft engaged in the coastwise trade.

There is in Maracaibo a dockyard for the construction of sailing vessels. The city has a well-established foreign consular service, and all modern improvements, such as electric lighting, telegraphs, telephones, submarine cable, tramways, etc.

Altagracia, capital of the Miranda District, has over 7,000 inhabitants, and is built on the eastern shore of the lake, almost opposite to Maracaibo. It has valuable commercial relations with its own State and towns in the States of Lara and Falcón. The district has coasts on the lake and on the gulf. Its principal sources of wealth are agriculture, fishing, and commerce.

San Carlos del Zulia, capital of the Colón District, is on the Escalante River, which serves as the natural channel for communication with the lake on the north and the interior country on the south, by means of both steam launches and sailboats. Fishing and agriculture are the main industries of the district.

Santa Rita, capital of the Bolívar District, is on the lake southeast of Maracaibo. The town has two fine bridges. The principal industries of the district are the cultivation of cocoanuts and the breeding of goats.

Sinamaica has over 1,000 inhabitants, among them some Indians, who preserve yet their primitive habits and customs, and live on the products of game and fishing. There are three salt deposits in its vicinity.

There are also other towns of more or less importance.

TERRITORIES AND COLONIES.

TERRITORIES.

It has been stated that Venezuela is divided into two Territories, besides the thirteen States already mentioned, and two large colonies. The Territories are the following:

The Amazonas Territory is situated in the region of the forests, its boundaries being as follows: The State of Bolívar on the north, the

Republic of Colombia on the west, and east and south the State of Bolívar and the Republic of Brazil. The population of the Territory is estimated at about 46,000 inhabitants, divided as follows: 12,000 civilized Indians, 33,000 uncivilized, 200 natives of other States of the Republic, and about 700 foreigners. The Indians are grouped in several tribes, the principal being the Maquitaires, the Vanivas, the Puinabos, the Guahibos, the Piaroas, the Macos, and the Vares. The Territory is divided into four districts.

San Fernando de Atabapo is the capital of the Territory.

The eastern portion of the Territory comprises large forests, with rivers, ranges, plains, and savannas. The Orinoco River bathes the central portion, dividing the Territory into two parts. On the western portion great plains are found extending as far as Colombia. The ranges in the Territory belong to the Parima system, its highest peaks being Macaragua, 7,524 feet altitude; Duida and Zamuro, over 6,000 feet each. The navigable rivers in the Territory are numerous, the principal being the Orinoco, Meta, Ventuario, Guaviare, and Vichada, Irurida, and Guainia from Colombia. The last river mentioned takes the name of Rio Negro upon its entering the Casiquiare, and running through Brazil, empties into the Amazonas. The most remarkable lagoon in the Territory is Vasiva, where turtles are abundant.

The Indians have several plantations and a few beef cattle and goat herds. Trade consists in the exchange of cloths and provisions from Ciudad Bolívar and Brazil for the natural products of the Territory and those of the Indian industry. The natural products, in which the trade is larger, are rubber, sarsaparilla, copaiba, tonka beans, tar, and wild cacao; and those of the Indian industry are "chiquichique" (*attalea funifera*) cords and ropes, hammocks, launches, fermented drinks, etc.

Traffic is more active through the region around the Guainia and Casiquiare rivers, and portions of the Orinoco and Atabapo rivers. Communication with Ciudad Bolívar is effected by the Orinoco; with Brazil by the Rio Negro and affluents and by land, and with British Guiana by the waterways of the rivers Padamo, Cuyuni, and Esequibo.

The climate is warm, and unhealthy at certain points.

The Colón Territory embraces the Venezuelan islands on the Caribbean Sea, excepting those belonging to the State of Rivas (old Miranda), to wit: Nueva Esparta, Coche, Cubagua, and Tortuga. The islands forming the Territory are Blanquilla, Los Hermanos, Frailes, Sola, Testigos, Esmeraldas, Venados, Caracas, Picudas, Chimanas, Borracha,

Arapos, Monos, Pírita, Farallón, Ocumare, Orchila, Los Roques, Aves, Los Monjes, and several small islands.

The natural products of the Colón Territory are phosphate of lime, guano, lime, woods, and fish. In Orchila a plant is found by the same name which is exported in large quantities for industrial purposes. There are salt deposits and mangrove groves in Los Roques.

Gran Roque, in the Roques group, is the capital of the Territory. Almost all the islands are uninhabited.

COLONIES.

The two colonies existing in Venezuela were established in 1874, with the object of encouraging immigration. The lands are fertile and the climate very healthful, foreigners enjoying perfect health. The colonies are:

Colonia Bolívar, in the Sucre District of the old State of Miranda, 22 square kilometers in extent, about 30 miles from Caracas, and 5 miles from Guatire. The principal town is Araira. The territory is irrigated by several streams and the Araira River. The main products of the colony are coffee, produce, and starch.

Colonia Independencia, in the Altagracie district of the old State of Miranda. Its area is 555 square kilometers, its altitude 5,400 feet above the level of the sea, and it is about 70 miles distant from Caracas. The lands are mountainous and excellent for agricultural purposes, the main products being coffee, sugar cane, yucca, and cacao. There are extensive forests where woods for building purposes are most abundant. The territory is irrigated by two rivers and five creeks, which form the Taguaza river, navigable for canoes as far as the Tuy, opposite Aragiita, thence by steamboats to the sea.

Taguacita is the principal town in the colony.

VI.

AGRICULTURE.

Agriculture and cattle breeding are the two industries forming the most solid base for the wealth of Venezuela, and although it has other resources and rich mines, to which space is given later, it may be set down that it lives off them almost exclusively. Agriculture and stock breeding sustain the foreign commerce of the Republic and attract the immigration which already begins to flow in, and which the Govern-

ment protects through special laws which will be cited hereafter. Venezuela, by reason of her topographical conformation, her climate, and the richness of her soil, enjoys conditions exceptionally favorable to the agricultural and live-stock industries.

The extent of the public lands in the agricultural belt of Venezuela is estimated, according to official statistics, to be 308,004 square miles. The area of the grazing region is said to be 156,450 square miles. Applicants for the purchase of public land must bind themselves, within the three years next following the grant, to cultivate at least one-half of the land sought, and should it be stock land, applicants must occupy it and establish themselves thereon within one year from the date of the grant. The sale is based upon the appraisement made by law, and the price is paid into the office of public credit. The price for public lands is calculated at the following figures: Acre of land suitable for cultivation, on an average, \$3.10 per acre; grazing lands, per square mile, on an average, \$65.50.

The cultivation of coffee, cacao, and sugar cane constitutes the principal agricultural industry in Venezuela. The two products first named are constantly exported, above all coffee, the principal source of the country's wealth. In any agricultural region of the Republic edible grains of different kinds, edible roots of an infinite variety, cotton, tobacco, and all the other products peculiar to hot lands, are easily raised. One-fifth of the population of Venezuela is engaged in the tilling of the soil. According to the latest statistics there are in Venezuela 328,188 persons engaged in agricultural pursuits.

Coffee.—This plant was introduced in Venezuela about the year 1784, in the vicinity of Caracas, where the seed was secured for planting it in the rest of the country. To-day it constitutes the principal wealth of the Republic. In 1839 it was estimated that there were 5,000 fanegadas¹ of land in Venezuela planted in coffee, and in 1888 it was calculated that there were 140,000 hectares of 1,200 trees each, or a total of 168,000,000 coffee trees in the country. The latest statistics show that there are now in the Republic over 32,266 coffee plantations.

Referring to the cultivation of this plant, the pamphlet "The United States of Venezuela in 1893," published by order of the Government, says as follows:

The best coffee is grown in the tierra templada and the lower part of the tierra fria, where the vegetation is refreshed throughout the whole year by dense and cool morning fogs. Experience has proved that the coffee tree thrives best under the shade of other large trees. For this purpose in the warmer parts the "saman" (*Pitheco-*

¹ One fanegada is equal to 1.78 acres.

lobium saman) and the "orore" (*Pithecolobium hymenaeifolium*) are used; in the temperate belt the principal shade tree is the "bucare" (*Erythrina corallodendron* and *E. mitis*), and in the colder region the coffee tree is sheltered by various species of "guamo" (*Inga fastuosa*, *I. vera*, etc.). Of all these shade trees the bucare is the best, as it makes a high clear trunk with a rather light crown, and sheds its leaves in December and January, so that the coffee tree gets an abundance of air and light precisely in the time just before flowering.

The coffee tree gives a first crop when four to five years old, crop time beginning generally in September or October. In well-managed estates there are no more than 1,000 trees per fanegada of land. It may be assumed that every tree yields three-fourths almudes (7.5 liters, or 7 quarts) of berries, which make 750 almudes per fanegada. Thirty-six almudes of fresh berries make 1 quintal of merchantable coffee; a fanegada produces, therefore, about 20 quintals of the latter, which, at the actual price, \$17 per quintal, are worth \$340, one-half at least of this amount being net profit.

The ripe coffee berries look very much like small cherries, and grow in clusters close to the bases of the leafstalks. After being picked they are thrown into the *descerezador*, or coffee pulper, in order to take off the fleshy outer part. This is done by pushing the fruits through a wedge-shaped slit against a rotary cylinder sheathed with a plate of copper which has a great number of little blunt bosses. After this manipulation the berries are left for about twenty-four hours in a brick-work tank with water, where the first fermentation helps to wash them more perfectly, and then they are spread out to dry in a large court, either paved with bricks or made very smooth with mortar. When perfectly dry they are taken to the *trilla*, which consists of a heavy wood or stone wheel, moved either by water power or animal force, and running in a circular bed or channel, wherein the parchment-like covering of the grains is crushed and broken, so that the clean grains can afterwards be separated from the chaff by means of the *renteador* or fanning machine.

Coffee prepared in the manner described is called *café descerezado* (washed coffee), while *café trillado*, which is of an inferior quality, is made by drying the berries without their fleshy pulp being taken off first, and then crushing the husk in the *trilla*.

In first-class coffee the grains ought to be of equal size, light-greenish color, and have a special and pleasant aroma; they should, moreover, be all of the same color after being roasted. All these properties are combined in coffee from Venezuela, which, therefore, unquestionably belongs to the very best kind known to commerce.

Coffee is to-day the most important product of Venezuelan agriculture, and will certainly continue to hold its prominent rank, the more so as the culture of the tree is comparatively easy, and not exposed to any great hazards from the attacks of injurious animals and parasitic diseases. Of the latter there are two, though neither frequent nor very damaging. One is called *mancha de hierro* (i. e., iron rust), due to the ravages of the larva of a microlepidopterous insect (*Cemiosoma coffeellum*); the other is known under the name of *candelillo* (i. e., little fire), and is produced by the growth of a fungus (*Pellicularia Koleroga*).

The first exportations made of this product were in 1789, amounting to 23,700 pounds. In 1893 over 102,000,000 pounds were exported, the total crop yield being estimated at 132,500,000 pounds. The exports of coffee in the year 1895-96 reached 52,224,525 kilograms (nearly

113,520,700 pounds), valued at \$5,766,157 bolívars. The total production is at the present time (1899) estimated to be over 132,000,000 pounds. The greater part of this product is shipped to Germany and France, and a considerable quantity to the United States, although not so much as appears from the export statistics of the Venezuelan seaports, since much of the coffee which appears as exported to this country is only in transit to Europe. The finest grades of Venezuelan coffee go to Europe.

The average bearing term of the coffee plant is estimated at thirty years in the warm regions and sixty in the cold regions. The average annual yield under ordinary circumstances is calculated to be one-half pound per plant.

Coffee is cultivated throughout nearly the whole Republic; that produced in the temperate regions, where there is less heat, is superior in quality and price to the hulled kinds produced in the hot lands.

It may be said that the greater part of the territory of Venezuela is adapted to the cultivation of coffee, but the uplands are without doubt those producing the best kinds, in proportion to their elevation above the sea. On the heights of Avila and of Caracas, as on all the Andean slopes, the best coffee is produced at the present time. Besides the regions named, lands in the western, central, and eastern States and the valleys of Aragua and Tuij are adapted to coffee raising.

Very good coffee is raised in the sections of Trujillo, Mérida, and Táchira, especially in the high lands of such sections.

Coffee trees are first planted in nurseries, being removed at the end of a year, when they have attained a good size and vigor, to be transplanted at convenient distances where the shade of the proper trees is securable.

The Venezuelan coffee is known in the markets of the United States by the names of "Caracas" and "Maracaibo." The first class embraces the coffees from the interior exported through the ports of La Guaira, Puerto Cabello, and Cumaná, and the second class the product of the States of Zulía and Los Andes.

Cacao.—Cacao, from which the chocolate of commerce is made, is the seed of a tree (*Theobroma cacao*) indigenous to several countries in tropical America. It grows to an average height of 18 feet, with a trunk from 5 to 8 inches in diameter. It is produced largely in Venezuela, the most famed of the domestic cacaos being those of Chuao, Orituco, Valles del Tuy, Barlovento, Barquisimeto, Trujillo, Mérida, Táchira, Zulía, and Gulf of Paria. In 1833 Codazzi estimated that there were in Venezuela 11,000 fanegadas of land devoted to cacao cul-

ture, with 8,000,000 trees. In 1888 there were 25,000 hectares of 625 trees each, or a total of 15,125,000 trees. According to the latest statistics of Venezuela there are now in the country 7,037 cacao estates. The tree requires for its full development a mean temperature of 25° to 26° C. (80° F.), a moist soil, and a humid atmosphere, and so the lands along the Caribbean coast, moistened by the vapors rising from the sea, and irrigated by the numerous rivulets that course down the mountain valleys, are found to be in all respects well adapted to the profitable cultivation of cacao. The tree yields profitably, according to calculations, for nearly 40 years. A cacao plantation is laid out in quite the same manner as an apple orchard.

No particular preparation of the soil is necessary and no manures are applied. One acre of land will accommodate about 150 trees, which must be protected from the sun by shade trees. While they are young the banana is used for this purpose, and afterwards a species of bucare (*Erythrina umbrosa*). Seven or eight years after planting the cacao trees begin to bear two crops per year, ripening in June and December. The average age of the tree is about thirty-five years, during which time the crop will yield 600 to 700 pounds of merchantable cacao annually per acre. The fruits are oval shaped with longitudinal ribs, and similar in appearance to muskmelons. Some are of a yellowish color, but generally they assume a dark reddish hue on ripening. Each fruit contains some 60 or 80 seeds embedded in a slimy pulp. After being taken out they are either cleaned and gradually dried or previously spread out on large courtyards covered with a kind of red earth or brick dust, which adheres to the seeds and gives them their red color. It is generally believed that cacao treated in this manner keeps longer and is much less exposed to the attacks of insects. In properly prepared cacao the parchment-like seed coat will burst easily when the grain is broken, and the interior, consisting of the cotyledons, or seed leaves, is of a uniform, dark-brown color without any whitish spots. There are several varieties of cacao in cultivation, the two principal ones being the *cacao trinitario* and the *cacao criollo*. The former is more vigorous, yields larger crops, and resists better any unfavorable weather as well as the attacks of insects. But the grains are smaller, harder, and more flattened than those of the *cacao criollo* or native cacao, and have, moreover, a more bitter taste. The best and finest *cacao crillo* comes especially from the coast east and west of Puerto Cabello, though it goes in commerce generally under the name of "Caracas cacao." It is undoubtedly superior to most other kinds of cacao, and so much esteemed that seeds have been solicited repeatedly

for the Government plantations of cacao in Ceylon, Java, and other East Indian islands. Cacao is sold in Venezuela by the fanega, a measure equivalent to 1.6 bushels, weighing 50 kilograms, or 110 pounds. Venezuela exports annually from 18,000,000 to 20,000,000 pounds of cacao, of an approximate value of \$2,000,000. Most of the exportation goes to Spain, France, and Germany. In the United States the demand is steadily increasing. The use of cacao is indeed becoming everywhere so extensive that it must soon be as universal a staple article of consumption as coffee and tea. The exports of cacao in 1895-96 were estimated to be 19,646,449 pounds, valued at \$1,947,570.

The native cacao (*cacao criollo*) yields 10 fanegas of 110 pounds for each 1,000 trees. The Venezuelan cacao enjoys an excellent demand in Europe and in the United States, being known in the latter markets under the names of "Caracas" and "Maracaibo." To the first class belong the products from Rio Caribe, Güiría, Carúpano, Rio Chico, Higuerote, and other places on the eastern coast, while the Maracaibo class embraces the products from the States of Zulia and Los Andes.

Sugar cane.—The cultivation of sugar cane is the second in rank in the agricultural wealth of Venezuela, where four kinds of cane are grown: The creole or domestic; the Otahiti, imported from Trinidad in 1798; the purple Batavia or Guinea, adapted to the production of rum or spirits, and the Salangore, introduced in 1869. All these kinds grow well. In 1839 Codazzi estimated that there were 2,500 fanegadas of land planted in cane; in 1888 there were 98,800 acres under cultivation, and now it is calculated that there are 11,061 sugar-cane plantations in the Republic. It is estimated that 1 hectare (2.411 acres) of good land produces about 15,000 canes, weighing about 13,000 pounds, which ought to produce 6,500 pounds of *papelón* (a common brown sugar) and 480 gallons of rum, of a total value of about \$1,000. The exports of sugar reached some importance in former years. In the year of 1842 182,641 pounds were exported, valued at \$148,154.10. In 1873 the exports were 5,217,465 pounds, valued at \$237,157. Owing to the sugar crisis in the markets of the world, the exports of this product have diminished and almost disappeared in Venezuela.

Up to a short time ago the importation of sugar into the Republic was prohibited; to-day it may be introduced by paying a heavy duty. Sugar is manufactured in the country for domestic consumption. It is of a fair quality, but not refined, as no refineries exist there. The most renowned sugars are those from Guatire and Zulia. The cane product having the greatest consumption, as it is the easiest elaborated, is the *papelón* or *pavla*, the exports of which have also dimin-

ished, for while they were in 1887-88 1,102,290 pounds, valued at 136,358 bolívars, the exports in 1895-96 only reached 4,052 pounds, valued at 417 bolívars.

These are, as has been said, the three principal cultures of the Venezuela of to-day, although by reason of the fecundity of her soil and her varied climate the products of nearly all the zones are grown.

Among the cultivations which at one time were very general in Venezuela and which have now fallen away for various reasons is that of cotton, which gave a considerable impulse to the country, and from 1864 to 1866, owing to the high price which the article reached because of the war in the United States, large capitals were invested in cotton fields and machinery; but the conclusion of the war brought about a great crisis, which ruined many planters and merchants.

The cotton growers and traders having been accustomed to getting—the former up to \$6 for each quintal of cotton, in the seed, and the latter up to \$60 for each quintal after seeding and packing—they could not accommodate themselves to the prices at which the article was quoted later in the United States, without calculating that if the production in Venezuela can now be offered in the market for twelve strong dollars or fifteen short dollars, there is no insurmountable reason why Venezuela, which pays lower wages, can not, by making the effort, compete with the United States, when the Americans also export the greater part of their crop to England. The cultivation of this plant is sufficiently well known in the country by the natives, and while they are engaged in it they can be benefited by cultivating other plants, such as the yucca, corn, tobacco, etc. On the other hand, the cultivation of cotton is not endangered, like that of other plants, by irregularities in the rains. The plant was mostly cultivated in the Barcelona section up to 1885, when a locust plague destroyed the fields. The seed cultivated was that of the sea island cotton, imported from the United States. Pursuant to the new tariff law of Venezuela, raw cotton, the importation of which was formerly prohibited, may now be introduced. The cotton which goes to Venezuela from the United States is for the Valencia mills, which manufacture principally canvas and wicking.

Indigo, the seed of which was imported from Guatemala in 1777, became one of the most flourishing industries of the country before the cultivation of coffee became general. Now, although the plant grows wild, it is not believed that its cultivation will be revived.

Tobacco is produced abundantly in the country. It is estimated that nearly 17,297 acres of land are devoted to the cultivation of this plant in Venezuela, and as each hectare yields an average of 15,000 plants,

producing 1,650 pounds per year, valued at \$160, the total production is 11,550,000 pounds, with an estimated value of \$1,120,000. Only 12 per cent of this amount is exported, principally to Germany. The remainder is consumed at home. The Capadare tobacco enjoys the distinction of being the best (price \$40 per quintal), and gets its name from a locality situated between Puerto Cabello and Coro. Excellent tobacco is also raised in Guácharo, Yaritagua, Mérida, Cumanacóa, and other points. Havana seed tobacco has lately been cultivated with success. The exports of tobacco in 1895-96 were 26,796 pounds, valued at \$17,686.

The cocoanut is also cultivated in Venezuela, where there are 1,223 plantations of this nut, which is consumed in the country and largely exported. In Barcelona, Maracaibo, and Cumaná there are mills for extracting the oil from the nut, which oil is the subject of considerable domestic trade. Cocoanuts are exported from Venezuela to the Antilles and the United States.

Notwithstanding the fact that wheat, which was brought by the Spaniards from the beginning of the conquest, has been cultivated in the vicinity of Caracas, the Valles de Aragua, Barquisimeto, Trujillo, Mérida, and Táchira, it is now cultivated in the State of Los Andes, where the milling industry has assumed great importance. Good flour mills exist in the sections of Trujillo, Mérida, and Táchira; but the production is very limited and does not supply the local demand. Wheat flour is one of the United States products most largely exported to Venezuela.

All kinds of tropical fruits and vegetables grow in the country. Among the fiber plants is the *cocuiza* (pita hemp), whose fibers at times reach a length of 1 meter, and which are used for making bags, hammocks, etc. Other fiber plants are the majagua, moriche, spiny-silk cotton tree (*Eriodendron anfractuosum*).

VII.

LIVE STOCK RAISING.

With the exception of the Argentine Republic, no other country of South America possesses greater advantages than Venezuela for the raising of cattle and domestic animals of all kinds. The grazing region, made up of immense fertile meadows, extends from the interior of the

old province of Guiana to the confines of the province of Casahare, in Colombian territory.

Horned cattle are raised admirably here. It may be said that the raising of fine grades of sheep has not yet been undertaken, although the ordinary classes are not wanting in the country.

When Merinos and other better classes of sheep are introduced for slaughter and the production of valuable wools, the splendid facilities for selecting proper land will be apparent.

Stock raising has considerably increased in Venezuela during recent years. In 1888 the figures comprising the preceding fifteen years of raising, according to the official work, "The United States of Venezuela in 1893," already cited, were as follows:

Stock.	Head.	Increase.	Stock.	Head.	Increase.
		<i>Per cent.</i>			<i>Per cent.</i>
Cattle	8, 476, 291	900	Horses	387, 646	400
Goats and sheep	5, 727, 517	400	Mules	300, 556	600
Hogs	1, 929, 693	500	Donkeys	858, 963	300

There are to-day in the country 7,654 herds of cattle, 10,407 flocks of sheep, goats, and swine, and 8,906 ranches.

According to the opinion of Humboldt, Codazzi, and other writers, the Barcelona section is the best adapted to cattle raising, not only because of the fine breed of its live stock, but also because of the nearness of its cattle ranches to the shipping points, and its abundant pasture and water. The Barcelona section should be divided, from the live stock breeder's point of view, into three regions—first, the grazing region; second, the grazing and breeding region; and third, the breeding region. The principal shipping ports for live stock on the hoof in the State of Bermúdez are the magnificent bay of Guanta, connected by rail with the capital of the State, and the port of Soledad, on the Orinoco, both in the Barcelona section; in the Maturín section, Caño Colorado and Uracoa; and in the Oumaná section, Puerto Sucre and Guiria. The most convenient port for cattle shipments to the English island of Trinidad is Caño Colorado (Maturín) owing to its proximity to the island and the ranches.

The next in importance to the Barcelona section, as live stock breeding localities, are the sections of Apure, Guárico, Portuguesa, and Barinas, and the States of Bolívar, Miranda, and Zamora.

In the State of Los Andes the cattle industry is assuming large proportions, and in that of Zulia some important herds exist, but the future of this industry in Venezuela is to be found on the Orinoco, the coast, however, retaining some importance—a future which will not materialize while the banks of that river still furnish poor pasture. Ciudad Bolívar, on the Orinoco, is the port of the Republic exporting the most cattle on the hoof, shipping to the British, French, and Dutch Guianas, the Antilles, and Brazil.

To form an idea of the rapid propagation of live stock in Venezuela, it suffices to observe that after the civil wars, from 1848 to 1873, the horned cattle were reduced in 1873 to 1,389,802. By the year 1876 they had increased to 2,158,267 head; in 1883 there were 2,926,733 head; in 1886, 5,275,481; in 1887, 6,687,041, and in 1888, as has been already said, there were 8,476,291. What has been noted regarding the increase in horned cattle is equally applicable to other live stock.

The increase in the number of heads of all kinds of cattle from 1876 to 1888 was estimated at about from 14 to 26 per cent, which has since suffered a decrease of about 25 per cent.

According to the latest statistical data, the other classes of live stock in Venezuela amount to the following numbers:

	Head.
Horses.....	208, 790
Goats.....	1, 560, 956
Sheep.....	134, 014
Mules.....	89, 186
Hogs.....	1, 618, 214
Donkeys.....	382, 810

Especially marvelous are the facilities for the reproduction of goats, it being incomprehensible that no efforts have been made to improve the different breeds by introducing such as will bring more profit to the owners. The extensive regions of the State of Falcón, of Lara, and a great part of the State of Zulia are especially adapted to the raising of goats, these animals being bred with the greatest ease and demanding the slightest labor in their care. Goat meat in the interior of Venezuela is almost on a par with mutton.

The cattle industry offers in Venezuela good opportunities for the investment of foreign capital.

The delta territory and the lands in the vicinity of the great fluvial artery of the country, the Orinoco, are inviting the colonizers to bring their great enterprises, which will insure handsome returns to the promoters. To give an idea of the importance the cattle industry may

acquire in those regions, let us copy what Señor Miguel J. Romero, sr., says, with respect to the estate known as "El Tigre," in the paper he wrote on cattle raising, published in 1884:

This estate (El Tigre) enjoyed great fame by reason of the number of cattle thereon, estimated at 1,000,000. Along about the years immediately preceding 1859, the product of this great estate was being reduced from 8,000 to 10,000 hides a year—hides taken from cattle that died and were skinned, and from a few bulls (perhaps not reaching 1,000) that were converted into steers and inclosed for fattening, then killed and skinned. By 1857 the beef cattle for salting (from 3 years upward, all kinds) had gone up to \$10 and \$12, and began to increase, notwithstanding the large herds from the south, and the meat-salting business was coming to a close; and, in fact, it died out from October, 1857, to April, 1858. About this time there came recommended to Messrs. Manuel Sanchez y Ca. a European, surnamed Elizondo, a very intelligent man in business and the preparation of jerked beef. This gentleman represented the interests of a wealthy Buenos Ayres house, which, in partnership with a Havana firm and Manuel Sanchez y Ca., desired to found in Barcelona an establishment for the preparation of jerked beef equal to the best of Buenos Ayres. The El Tigre estate was thought of; the basis of 50,000 head of cattle, at the rate of 20 reales per head for beef cattle, was accepted, the establishment to be set up on the estate at a port where seagoing vessels could enter—that is to say, that the cattle of the El Tigre, although not burdened with moving expenses, were worth one-quarter of the value of those from the central part of Barcelona. Suppose that this establishment were to be founded at this time, with the experience and knowledge of the day. El Tigre possesses lands on the delta; it has deep waterways flowing parallel from the west to the east to the sea; irrigable land where the paez grass grows perfectly; the cost of fencing would be insignificant. The important expense would be the cultivation of the grass; inclosures could be built for fattening 5,000 steers per year, which, destined to exportation, either alive or as fresh meat, would bring a gross revenue of 2,000,000 pesos per annum. The conditions prevailing at El Tigre are repeated at Rio Claro Hernandero, on the banks of the Orinoco, and at many other places.

The paper on cattle raising to which reference has been made opens with this paragraph:

The cattle industry begins to break the bonds of routine. Steam, that lever of progress, gives it a powerful impulse, and it will soon reach its true pinnacle of grandeur and will occupy a high place as an element of public wealth. No bordering country can compete with Venezuela as an exporter of live cattle. Panama, Jamaica, Cuba, St. Thomas, the Windward Islands, Demerara, Paramaribo, and Cayenne—that is, 2,000,000 souls—make up the natural markets for our cattle, and even Europe herself, where they could be taken either alive or as fresh meat frozen, as it is exported from Australia and Buenos Ayres. The places that are called upon to figure in the front ranks in this economic revolution, which will bring to the country a wealth which will reimburse it for the losses it has suffered through the fall in coffee, are the ports of Guanta (Barcelona), Puerto Cabello, Ciudad Bolívar, and Caño Colorado (Maturín).

The exports of cattle are now about 10,000 head a year, shipped to the Antilles, the British, Dutch, and French Guianas, and Brazil. Formerly the exportation was greater; for instance, in the year 1844 it was 17,661 head, and in 1855 13,920 head. According to the latest information, a contract has been signed in Venezuela for the exportation to Cuba of 2,000 head of cattle monthly for one year. The exports of live cattle to Cuba from Puerto Cabello, from October 6 to December 4, 1898, amounted to 4,724 head.

The exports of hides and skins are as follows: Cattle hides, 3,520,000 pounds; goatskins, 1,540,000 pounds; deerskins, 220,000 pounds. The exports of cattle horns exceed 66,000 pounds.

The Government of Venezuela has enacted several measures looking to the development of agriculture and cattle raising. Among others the more noteworthy were the creation of a Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce, and of the Superior Council of Agriculture, a body essentially consultative and instructive, which is composed of nine members or councilors—three graduate agronomists, three agriculturists, and three cattle breeders. Gen. I. Andrade, the present president of the Republic, who, as a farmer and cattle raiser, is interested in the promotion of the agricultural and cattle industries, is a member of this council. The establishment of agricultural schools and experimental stations has also been decreed. The class in agronomy of the Central University of Venezuela has been showing very good results. The Government, in 1895, sent to the United States a member of this class in order that he might study the American system of agricultural education and farming methods. Venezuela, ever attentive to the invitations of the United States, has always sent representatives to the International Agricultural Congress of the United States.

The enthusiasm awakened in Venezuela for the development of its agriculture is due to the initiative of private parties. The decided support of the Government is being sought. Agricultural societies have been formed throughout all the country. The Stock Raisers' Guild of Apure has been organized. Papers devoted to agriculture and stock raising are being established and also bureaus of information. At the initiative of the Agricultural Club of Caracas there met, on February 2, 1898, the first congress of agriculturists of Venezuela, which studied important plans for the establishment of a territorial credit bank, the founding of cooperative societies, and the payment of premiums to farmers.

VIII.

FOREST PRODUCTS.

By reason of the fertility of her soil, the great wealth of her forests, and the variety of her climate, Venezuela is of all the countries of the Western Hemisphere perhaps the greatest among the producers of lumber of all kinds, dyewoods, and medicinal plants. A detailed study of the Venezuelan flora would be necessarily too long, so that this section will be limited only to giving the names and properties of some of these products. The business of exploiting timber has not yet reached the degree of development that it should, due, among other causes, to the fact that, owing to the abundance of the forest growth, those trees which have been felled have not been replaced and to the very injurious custom of making clearings and fires for charcoal and to prepare the land for other cultivations, which has been the cause of the destruction of many of the best forests of the Republic. Besides these causes, others exist which present obstacles to the development of the commerce in exporting Venezuelan woods. The most extensive forests, where the best woods are to be found, are almost all far in the interior, removed from the shipping points, and the nearest forests to these outlets lack roads and means of transportation for carrying large logs and heavy timber. It may be said that the lumber business is limited to local consumption either in the way of building or cabinet-work.

The State of Zulia is perhaps at the present time that which offers the greatest advantages for the establishment of a direct trade in woods with the United States, since its forests are the best preserved and furnish woods which are already known in this country. On the other hand, the frequency of direct communications by steamer between Maracaibo and New York would greatly facilitate this trade. Under date of March 2, 1890, Mr. Plumacher, United States consul at Maracaibo, in a report published by the Department of State (Consular Reports, May, 1890, No. 116), said:

I beg to call attention to the great and unappreciated wealth of valuable woods of different classes found in the forests of this district.

For many years a somewhat brisk trade has been carried on in timber and dyewood between Maracaibo and the United States and Europe. By far the greater quantity has been, and still is, shipped to European markets, but within the past three or four years American importers are taking a more likely interest in the matter. For this reason I desire to make known the fact that in this section of Venezuela, within easy

reach of convenient shipping points on the lake, there exist hundreds of species of most valuable woods, the majority being entirely unknown in foreign markets. Notwithstanding the traffic in this branch of commerce that has for years been carried on, the different classes of woods as yet exported form a most insignificant list as compared with the great number of different species, nearly all of which are quite as useful as, or even more so than, those with which foreigners are already acquainted. Hitherto only the following woods have been exported from this district: Fustic, boxwood, and cedar, together with small quantities of the different species of *lignum-vitæ*.

Divi-divi, of which comparatively large shipments are made to the United States and Europe, is a bean, and can not, therefore, be included in the list of woods, although the tree from which this product is taken gives a most excellent and durable timber.

Consul Plumacher followed the above with a list of 78 kinds of wood "noted as being serviceable for constructions, as they are hard, close-grained, and almost imperishable." After expressing other views, the report ended as follows:

It is to be regretted that, considering the present passion for exploration and travel, some competent explorers do not find their way to Maracaibo. A botanist would find much of interest and do incalculable service by examining and reporting upon our forests. At present, out of hundreds of species of most valuable woods, all of which would be in great demand in foreign markets, only two or three classes have as yet been thought of for shipment. This state of affairs can not always exist, and there are fortunes awaiting those who may determine to bring to light and introduce to the world the treasures hidden in the forests of Zulia. Probably no part of South America of equal area can make a showing in this line equal to this section, and the list I give, meager and incomplete as it is, may at least serve as a hint of what careful investigation might discover.

At the World's Columbian Exposition of 1893 Venezuela exhibited 145 kinds of wood and 20 of dye and tanning woods. Among the former are included the following:

Acapro (*Tecoma spec.*).—From 20 to 25 meters high. It is almost indestructible, but difficult to work.

Aco (*Lonchocarpus punctatus*).—Height of tree, 10 to 15 meters. The wood is strong and tough, of a darkish color, with some lighter veins; it keeps well under water.

Aguacatillo (*Persea spec.*).—The wood is used in boat building and for making furniture. Logs of 16 inches square are not uncommon.

Ajicito (*Capparis pachaca*).—A small tree, with a light-colored wood of not much hardness, used for cabinetwork.

Albaricque (*botanical name not known*).—A fine-grained wood, not very hard, used for cabinetwork.

Algarrobo (*Hymenocourbaril*).—A very hard and heavy wood, so that it can be easily worked. It is especially used for crushing wheels and similar things in coffee estates. Height of tree, 20 to 25 meters.

Araquaney (*Tecoma spectabilis*).—The heartwood is of great hardness, of a dark olive color. Height of tree, 20 to 25 meters.

Aspai (Myrodia turbinata).—A fine-grained and light-colored wood, easy to work, and used by cabinetmakers.

Balaustre (Centrolobium robustum).—Wood red-colored, with dark veins; it is easily worked and takes a good polish. Much used for cabinetwork; also for house and ship building. Height of tree, 25 meters. The tree is also known by the name of *cartan*.

Borracho (Piscidia erythrina).—A light wood, which, however, resists the attacks of insects, on account of a poisonous substance contained in the sap. It is used for ordinary cabinetwork.

Caoba (Swietenia mahagoni).—The well-known mahogany wood.

Caóbano (Brunella comocladifolia).—Wood somewhat similar to mahogany, though of inferior quality. It is principally used for boards and sheathing.

Caóbano Blanco (Guarea ruagea).—Wood yellowish white, rather light, and of little hardness; used especially for boxes.

Cedro Amargo (Cedrela odorata).—The bitter cedar wood is perhaps the one which is more frequently used for ordinary cabinetwork than any other, owing to its being so very easily worked and proof against the attacks of all kinds of insects.

Cedro Dulce (Bursera altissima).—Wood somewhat resinous, light, and rather spongy. It is used for boards, sheathing, etc. The tree is of very large dimensions.

Ceibo (several species of Bombax and Eriodendron).—All are very large trees, growing very fast. The wood is soft and light, and used especially for making large dugout canoes.

Cuspa (Galipea cusparia).—Of whitish yellow color, rather heavy and strong; specific weight, 0.90.

Durote (Bocoea proracensis).—A high tree with a very hard and fine-grained wood of a beautiful reddish color, which takes a splendid polish. It is one of the finest cabinet woods.

Dividive (Casalpinia coriaria).—A large tree, reaching sometimes a height of 30 meters. It yields a fruit used for tanning leather. The wood is very heavy, strong, and fine grained; the heartwood black and almost as hard as iron. It is used for wheels in mills and turnery ware.

Ebano (Casalpinia ebano and C. punctata).—Wood black, with some veins of other colors, very strong and fine grained.

Galeado (Astronium graveolens).—The tree is also known by the names of *diomate* and *tibigaro*, especially in the western part of Venezuela. The wood is dark colored, very strong and hard, and takes a fine polish, so that it ranks among the best cabinet woods.

Granadillo (Brya ebenus).—Very hard; the heartwood brownish.

Gudimaro (botanical name not known).—A large tree known under the name of *charo*. A fine-grained wood and takes a beautiful polish, so that it is very desirable for fine cabinetwork.

Guayacán (Guayacum officinale).—Wood exceedingly hard and tough, the fibers crossing each other, so that it does not split. It is used for turnery work, cart axles, teeth of indented wheels, etc.

Guayabo de Montaña (Eugenia moritziana).—A good-sized tree growing frequently in mountain forests. The wood is hard and heavy, of a yellowish color, highly elastic, and very durable. It is especially used for rafters, on account of its great transverse resistance.

Laurel (*Nectandra laurel*).—*Laurel blanco* (*Oreodaphne leucozydon*).—*Laurel capuchino* (*Aydeendron laurel*).—*Laurel negro* (*Nectandra turbacensis*).—The wood of all these trees is strong, though not very heavy, fine grained, and more or less aromatic. The color is variable. It is very durable and easily worked, and much used for cabinetwork; also for boats and larger river vessels.

Mora (*Simorphantra excelsa*).—The wood is heavier than water, dark red, close grained, and rather hard. It is used in boat building.

There are many other varieties of woods most useful for building and cabinetwork.

Among the dye and tanning woods there are the mulberry, Brazil wood, the amarillo (*Aspidosterna vargasti*), the onotillo (*Vismia ferruginea*), the annatto (*Bixa orellana*), the indigo, the bark of the red mangrove, the divi-divi, and many others.

IX.

MINERAL RESOURCES.

If the agricultural and cattle wealth of Venezuela is great, no less great is her mineral wealth. Notwithstanding this, it may well be said that little, if anything, has been done in the country for its exploitation and development. There are rich gold mines in Yuruari (State of Bolívar), the most celebrated of which is the Callao mine, whose auriferous product gained for it the first place among those of its kind. The gold exported from this mine from 1886 to 1890, according to official data, reached 6,983.87 kilograms, or nearly 15,180 pounds. The product of the other mines of the Yuruari district, according to the same data, was as follows:

Companies.	Kilos. <i>a</i>	Grams.
Chile	731	273
The Union.....	583	749
Callao Bis.....	58	133
Cicapra	893
Chocó.....	155
Venezuela Austin, Limited.....	1,108	959
Gold from several companies	225	231
New Potosí	202	686

a A kilo is equal to 2.20 pounds and a gram 15 grains.

The total product of the mines of this district from 1866 to 1895 is estimated at over 70,000 kilograms, or about 322,000 pounds. The total exports of gold bars, gold ore, and gold concentrates in general from

Ciudad Bolívar, between July 1, 1875, and June 30, 1896, according to the latest official data, amounted to 67,987 kilos, valued at 170,646,740 bolívares. From July 1, 1896, to June 30, 1898, the total exports of gold through the same port amounted to 73,741 kilos, valued at 185,321,156 bolívares. There are also other gold mines in Chacao and Baruta (State of Miranda), in the mountainous regions of the Yaracuy River, in the cities of San Felipe and Nirgua, and still others near Carúpano, which have yielded as high as 7 ounces per ton.

In the same localities there are silver, copper, and lead mines. Seventy miles east of Puerto Cabello are situated the valuable Aroa copper mines, which have been worked for a long time by an English company, and owing to the rapid increase of the production a railroad was built which carries the ore to Tucacas, from which place it is shipped in steamers to Puerto Cabello. These mines yield red copper, which is preferred in the markets of Europe to the Swiss and Chilean copper. Along the line of the Cordillera red hematite and magnetic iron are found. These metals also exist in the mountains of Coro, Barinas, Barcelona, Cumaná, and Parima; but one of the richest deposits is near the Imataca River, an affluent of the lower Orinoco. From the neighborhood of Tocuyo specimens of lead have been obtained which promise a rich ore. This mine is not yet worked. The Pedernales asphalt, from its vitreous aspect and hardness, seems identical with the Egyptian refined, or "Épuré." Coal deposits exist at Nacional, State of Bermúdez, and there have been explored in a small area over one hundred beds, varying from 4 to 7 inches in thickness. This coal is of the bituminous kind, burns easily, emits combustible gas, leaves a small residue of clayish ashes, and contains very little sulphur. The rich salt beds discovered by Niño in 1499 on the Araya Peninsula are constantly worked. They produced for the Government from 1873 to 1893 a revenue of \$2,753,761.44. Salt is taken out easily and with little expense. In Lagunillas, near Mérida, the bottom of a lake is covered with urao. In Cumaná, Barcelona, and Coro are found large deposits of sulphur which have not yet been worked. The granite in the Silla Mountain, near Caracas, is inexhaustible, and slate, marble, granite, and chalk abound on the coast and in the Parima Mountains.

According to statistics lately published by the Government of Venezuela there are in the territory of the Republic 226 deposits of the following minerals:

Federal District.—Seven, to wit: Amethyst, antimony, limestone, garnet (2), silver, and lead.

Los Andes (the old State).—Forty-six, as follows: Red ocher, mineral tar (5), alum (2), asphalt, sulphur (3), coal (9), copper, guano (2), gaylussite, garnet (2), iron (4), magnesia, marble (2), gold, petroleum (2), slate (2), silver (2), lead, saltpeter, talc, trona, and gypsum.

Bermúdez (the old State).—Fifteen, as follows: Sulphur (4), coal (3), carbonate of lime, rock crystal, iron, magnesia, gold, petroleum, building stone, and silver.

Bolívar.—Fifty-one, as follows: Asphalt, rock crystal, phosphate of lime, guano, mercury (2), gold (4), and salt.

Carabobo.—Seven, as follows: Copper, phosphate of lime, gold (4), and lead.

Falcón.—Twelve, as follows: Asphalt, pitch, coal (4), copper (2), iron (2), gold, and silver.

Lara.—Nineteen, as follows: Amber, sulphate of lime, copper (6), tin, gold, silver (2), platinum (2), lead (4), and talc.

Miranda (the old State).—Forty-one, as follows: Copperas, grindstone, jet (2), coal (4), carbonate of lime, copper (4), rock crystal, quartz, diamond, tin, phosphate of lime, granite, iron (2), kaolin (2), magnesia, marble (3), ocher, gold (8), oxide of iron, silver, spheue, and gypsum (2).

Zamora.—Nineteen, as follows: Copperas, alum (2), pitch (2), guano, rock crystal, cyanite, iron, opals, gold (2), petroleum, slate, silver, saltpeter (2), talc, and gypsum.

Zulia.—Nine, as follows: Amber, asphalt (3), gold (4), and petroleum.

The salt mines of the Republic are administered by the National Government, and they yearly yield about one and a half million bolívars. The principal salt deposits are those of Cumaná, Barcelona, Nueva Esparta, Falcón, and Zulia. Mineral waters abound in Venezuela.

MINING AND PUBLIC LAND REGULATIONS.

The mining law in force in Venezuela provides, among other things, as follows:

A mine is any deposit of inorganic metalliferous and combustible substances which are found in the interior or on the surface of the earth in lodes, strata, or any other form, and precious stones admitting of mining work and used as jewelry. Pearls, corals, sponges, amber, etc., whether found in placers or along the seashore, will not be considered as mines, and the exploitation thereof shall be governed by special rules issued by the Federal Executive or the executives of the several States, as the case may be. Building and ornamental stone, sands, siliceous or calcareous productions, slate, clays, lime, pozzzolana, peat, marl, kaolin, calumbin, saltpeter, etc., belong to the owner of the ground, be he a private person or the nation, and any person may work the same without further requirement than the permission of the owner.

The working of mines situated within the limits of the Venezuelan territory being of public utility, their prospecting and working shall be governed by the provisions of this mining code and the general laws.

Auriferous and tin bearing sands and any other mineral production of rivers, as well as gold alluvions found on public lands, may be freely utilized unless they have been conveyed by executive grant or contract. Whenever the working of the mineral products mentioned herein shall be pursuant to grants and in fixed establishments, they shall be governed by special titles to be granted by the Federal Executive, setting forth precise limits for each claim or holding in the beds of rivers, mountains, and placers, and clear conditions establishing the obligations of the grantees and the rights of the nation, and apportioning to each holding the ground necessary for the establishment of machinery, etc.

The ownership of mines is vested in the States, their administration in the Federal power, and their working in those who shall have obtained or who shall hereafter obtain from the National Executive a concession, or who shall have acquired such rights in any other way pursuant to the provisions of the existing code, which recognizes all rights acquired by virtue of former laws.

Mines shall not be worked, even by the owner of the soil, without first obtaining a concession from the Federal Executive. Explorations shall be done on concessions granted by the National Executive, and shall not occupy less than 1 hectare nor more than 300 hectares in the case of vein mines. Mining concessions are declared to be perpetual or immovable. When the concession relates to coal it may embrace three times as many hectares.

Every region of circumscription has a soil and a subsoil, the former being on the surface and extending downward in a vertical line a distance of 3 meters. The latter commences at a distance of 3 meters and extends downward indefinitely. A mining concession once granted constitutes of itself real property, and may be acquired, conveyed, mortgaged, and encumbered in accordance with the provisions of the civil code relating to real estate. The machinery, apparatus, and whatever concessionary may plant for the benefit and working of all kinds of mines while the work is conducted under the concession are also considered as real estate.

The rights of every concessionary end with the limits of his grant. Nevertheless, whoever in working his vein or deposit, be it a lode or alluvion, shall encounter ground not granted or abandoned works of the same class, shall have the preferred right to apply for another concession on this adjoining land. Should an individual or company in the prosecution of their work come in contact with the grant of another, they shall suspend the operations immediately on learning the fact personally, or through complaint of the owner, and must divide into two equal portions the net value of the ore that may have been extracted bona fide; but should they maliciously trespass upon another's claim they shall not only lose the right to the half extracted, but shall pay to the owner an amount double the value of the ore taken out, but said owner must prove bad faith in a suit against the trespasser. All minerals found within the limits of vein or lode mining grants belong to the grantee, who may freely work the same without any new grant. Whenever between two or more claims unappropriated or open spaces occur, they shall be granted to the owner of the abutting grants who shall first apply for the same, and through waiver of the latter to any private individual making application therefor.

The title to a claim or grant shall be issued by the President of the Republic. A new grant of public land or commons includes the title to the surface as well as to the mine, the grantee being empowered to freely use, for the working of the grant, woods, waters, and other substances thereon, the only obligation imposed being to comply strictly with the provisions of the law.

FACILITIES FOR OBTAINING GOVERNMENT LANDS IN VENEZUELA.

Government land may be obtained easily for cultivation as well as for the raising of cattle and domestic animals.

Pursuant to the law the executive power has control of the Government lands for the purposes following:

- (1) For the establishment of agricultural and mining colonies.
- (2) For the creation of territories to the end of developing the natural products, such as rubber, the Tonka bean, quinia or cinchona bark, also called calisaya bark.
- (3) For the necessary reservations for the maintenance and civilization of the aboriginal tribes.
- (4) For immigrants. The national Government may grant immigrants and their families 1 hectare (2.471 acres) of land to each member of the family without any legal requirement other than the survey of the same.
- (5) For stimulating the construction of railways, being empowered to this end to grant the companies constructing and maintaining the same up to 547 varas on each side of the track.
- (6) For the protection of the agricultural, cattle, and other industries. To this end the President, with the consent of the respective States, may grant concessions to applicants observing the legal requirements.

In Venezuela foreigners are not prohibited from possessing real estate, nor from owning it in fee simple, always subject, however, to the sovereignty of the State, as is the case with respect to citizens.

In sales of public lands the State does not bind itself to put the purchaser in possession of specified boundaries, nor to warrant and defend the same against private parties.

Public lands situated within 3 miles of a salt deposit or mine, or within 547 varas of the seashore, or 219 varas of lake shores or navigable river banks, or 55 varas of the banks of smaller streams, will not be the subject of grants.

Persons intending to purchase public lands must bind themselves:

- (1) To cultivate, within three years from the date of the grant, at least one-half on the land applied for, under pain of a forfeiture of the grant through a simple declaration of the Government to that effect, save for justifiable cause.
- (2) To establish themselves on the land granted for cattle grazing within the term of one year, under penalty of forfeiting the grant.

No hectare of land can be valued at less than 7.70 pesos, nor the league of grazing land for less than 384.60 pesos.

The same law also provides that no single individual or association may be granted agricultural land in excess of 1,235 acres, or pasture lands in excess of 12,197 square varas.

In granting public lands the following shall have preference:

(1) The party who, upon the promulgation of the law applicable to the case, shall hold, with or without title, land under cultivation, or if grazing land, his establishment thereon, or who shall have expended money on the measurement of the land in order to file his petition.

(2) If the applicant shall not be in possession of land, the first applicant shall have preference.

The price of the lands, according to law, is to be determined by the survey to be made under the authority of the minister of promotion, and shall be paid into the office of the public credit in notes of the consolidated national debt, bearing interest at the rate of 5 per cent per annum, or in cash, at the market value of these securities according to the latest quotations.

Pursuant to article 18 of the said law, a grant made in the form described and recorded in the proper office will constitute a valid transfer without other requisite.

X.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRIES.

There are, in Venezuela, numerous industries producing many articles of food, clothing, and other necessities of civilized life, from grain mills to the manufacture of pianos and mirrors. Steam is generally employed as motive power.

The principal manufacturing centers are Caracas, Valencia, Maracaibo, La Guaira, and Puerto Cabello, the main industries being the manufacture of agricultural machines and implements, carriages and wagons, pianos, furniture, aerated waters, blank books, envelopes, chocolate, ice, matches, mirrors, soap and candles, electrotypes, distilleries, breweries, electric light and power, and several other industries.

There is near Caracas a plant for the manufacture of wicks which has been in operation for several years, and a paper mill at present inactive.

There is in Valencia a fine plant for the manufacture of cotton cloth.

Carúpano and Maracaibo are both producers of the best rum in the country.

In Mérida the principal industry is the manufacture of woolen carpets dyed with vegetable dyes, giving the brightest colors.

The manufacture of cheese is the principal industry of the region of the plains.

In the vicinity of Barquisimeto, Guanare, and Acarigua, and in several other places hammocks, bags, and bagging are manufactured of "*cocuiza*" and "*cocuy*" (species of henequén).

In Cumaná stone water filters are made, in use throughout the country.

The manufacture of straw hats is almost universal in the country.

In the States of Lara, Los Andes, and Falcón, beautiful cotton and woolen embroideries are made by hand, used for trimming shawls and other wearing apparel.

Sugar, *papelón* (species of brown sugar), alcohols, and rums are manufactured in the sugar-cane plantations.

The products of the animal industry are hides, skins, feathers, animal fats, wool, hair, wax, and honey.

Shipbuilding is as yet in its infancy and is scarcely worth mentioning; however, a large number of small craft for the navigation on the coasts, rivers, and lakes is manufactured. The best shipyard in Venezuela is in Maracaibo. Years ago a small steamboat was built in Clarines, the only one of its kind ever made in Venezuela.

XI.

COMMERCE.

Venezuela, a country essentially agricultural and relatively unpopulated when considering her area, has not yet, owing to lack of labor, reached the degree of development which her immense resources, the fertility of her soil, and her admirable topographical conformation assure her. Hence the meager manufacturing industries existing in the Republic are barely of local importance, and hence, also, in order to meet the needs of the population she finds herself obliged to import from abroad nearly everything consumed in the country in exchange for the natural products of her soil.

According to the *Estadística Anual de los Estados Unidos de Venezuela*, 1894, published by order of the Ministry of Promotion of the Republic, during the ten years elapsed from 1885 to 1894, the imports made through the custom-houses of Venezuela reached the figures following:

Year.	Weight in kilograms.	Value in bolívars. ^a
1884-85.....	21,456,717	33,693,490
1885-86.....	26,735,818	44,078,463
1886-87.....	33,093,117	59,003,133
1887-88.....	31,838,631	56,047,799
1888-89.....	27,160,500	66,270,015
1889-90.....	42,807,727	79,807,821
1890-91.....	36,469,284	66,674,481
1891-92.....	30,395,325	71,094,899
1892-93.....	22,750,758	52,783,451
1893-94.....	33,362,498	72,744,578
Total	316,180,385	602,198,156

The Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Finance (Ministerio de Hacienda) of Venezuela has published the following figures, showing the importation of foreign goods, according to the consular reports received by the Bureau, during the fiscal year 1895-96:

Origin.	Kilograms.	Bolívars.
Spain and Spanish colonies.....	5,129,157	4,358,036
France.....	2,823,255	8,011,759
England and British colonies.....	47,546,129	20,704,069
Curaçao (Dutch colony).....	323,783	981,163
Germany (Hamburg).....	24,925,809	17,617,845
United States (New York) a.....	21,947,942	9,015,203
Total	102,696,075	60,688,075

^a Estimated.

To these figures must be added those representing the amounts corresponding to other countries, which at the time of publication of the statistics had not reached the Bureau. Said amount is estimated at 12,056,501 bolívars.

The same document gives the following figures for the imports in the year 1897-98: 88,833,716 kilos, valued at 43,906,441 bolívars.

Venezuela imports from the following countries in the order given as regards quantity: United States, Germany, France, England, Italy, Spain, Holland, and the Republic of Colombia.

The staple articles imported by Venezuela in the greatest quantities are wheat flour, lard, kerosene oil, butter, groceries of all kinds, rice, wines, and liquors. The imports of manufactured articles are generally made up of oils and paints, barbed wire and staples, firearms, cordage, roman cement, drugs and perfumery, dry goods of all kinds, hardware,

paper and printing materials, soap and candles, sewing machines, machinery, lumber, powder and ammunition, cut tobacco for cigarettes, leaf and chewing tobacco, glassware and lamps, carriages, carts, wagons, locomotives, railroad, telegraph, telephone, and electric light materials, jewelry, etc., all of which, with the exception of some silk textiles and fancy articles, are imported from the United States in greater or less quantities.

The imports made by Venezuela from the United States during the calendar year of 1897, according to the data furnished by the consulate-general of Venezuela in New York, were as follows:

Ports.	Packages.	Kilos.	Values.
La Guaira.....	310, 513	18, 709, 410	\$1, 354, 306. 76
Puerto Cabello.....	166, 694	7, 087, 263	570, 666. 91
Maracaibo.....	101, 293	6, 156, 558	650, 331. 00
Ciudad Bolívar.....	77, 120	3, 458, 644	280, 172. 96
La Vela de Coro.....	45, 033	2, 036, 703	111, 883. 95
Carúpano.....	19, 065	852, 058	74, 618. 24
Guanta.....	5, 106	270, 710	21, 417. 46
Cumaná.....	3, 781	205, 561	17, 513. 56
Cafío Colorado.....	1, 788	107, 341	6, 873. 00
Maturín.....	363	31, 715	2, 553. 35
Guiría.....	347	16, 784	1, 323. 00
Maracaibo (gold).....	18	151	91, 351. 67
Total.....	731, 121	38, 932, 898	3, 183, 016. 86

These goods were transported in 110 vessels, thus: 48 American steamers, 18 Dutch, 17 English, 10 Spanish, 3 French, 7 American schooners, 4 American brigantines, and 3 English brigantines.

The imports for the year 1897-98 amounted to 35,299,956 kilos, valued at 14,890,184 bolívars.

The exports of Venezuela are limited to the natural products of the country, of which coffee and cacao are the principal. According to the annual statistics for 1897, published by one of the best coffee-importing houses in New York, the total number of bags of this product of Venezuela imported through this port was 463,928, of which 16,395 bags were in transit, which gives a net total to New York of 447,535 bags. The coffee known in the American market under the name of "La Guaira" includes that from Caracas, Puerto Cabello, Cumaná; the coffee known as the "Maracaibo" comprises that from Cúcuta, (Colombia), Trujillo, Mérida, Tovar, Boconó, San Cristóbal, and other points of the interior of Venezuela. The coffee usually comes in bags weighing 130 pounds, more or less. In the year 1897 the price of

the "Maracaibo" coffee fluctuated between 6½ and 14 cents, and that of the "La Guaira" between 7 and 15 cents. The retaliatory duty levied by the United States on the Venezuelan coffees, by reason of the absence of a reciprocity treaty between 1892 and 1894, was the cause of the falling off of the imports of this product, principally that of Caracas and Puerto Cabello, whose imports into New York in 1888 were 242,890 bags. They decreased in 1893 to 3,178 bags. Since 1894, when the duties were repealed, the imports have again increased, and it is to be hoped that they will soon again return to their old figure. The imports from Maracaibo also fell off considerably, but they have been slowly recovering the lost ground, and the greater part of the crop from that place now comes to the United States.

The imports of cacao from Venezuela to New York were in 1897 as follows: "Caracas" cacao (which includes the article from Rio Caribe, Guiria, Carúpano, Rio Chico, Higuerote, and other coast points), 18,617 bags, as against 30,163 in 1896; "Maracaibo" cacao, 732 bags in 1897, as against 694 in 1896. Cacao usually comes in bags of 110 pounds (1 fanega). The price of the first six classes fluctuated in 1897 between 9 and 11½ cents American gold. At present it fluctuates between 16 and 18 cents, according to class.

The total exports from Venezuela during the fiscal year 1895-96, according to a tabulated statement published in the report of the secretary of finance (Memoria de Hacienda) for 1897, amounted to the following quantities: 2,731,618 packages; weight, 79,084,555 kilograms; value, 111,455,143 bolívars, as follows:

Destination.	Packages.	Kilograms.	Value.
			<i>Bolívars.</i>
United States.....	285,238	9,524,232	12,480,228
France and colonies.....	548,684	23,612,843	33,893,831
Germany.....	144,080	6,562,494	8,965,470
Italy.....	22,393	1,793,251	1,833,401
Spain and colonies.....	22,056	796,108	924,770
England and colonies.....	1,172,211	7,397,394	9,944,044
Holland and colonies.....	531,900	29,098,344	42,952,816
Colombia (through Ciudad Bolívar).....	245	13,389	7,326
Mexico.....	109	6,227	5,820
Austria.....	2,845	138,006	227,177
Russia.....	202	11,918	20,260
Belgium.....	200	11,866	20,000
Denmark.....	1,455	88,170	134,000
Sweden.....	500	30,300	46,000
Total.....	2,731,618	79,084,554	111,455,143

The exports of coffee during the year, according to the same document, amounted to 1,022,255 bags, weighing 52,224,525 kilograms, valued at 85,766,157 bolívares; cacao, 167,055 bags, weight 8,930,204 kilograms, valued at 10,091,037 bolívares; hides and skins, 304,145 pieces, weight 3,726,494 kilograms, valued at 5,313,516 bolívares. The exports of all kinds of woods are estimated at 246,545 bolívares; gold in bars, 3,613,428 bolívares; specie, 1,163,429 bolívares; beef cattle, 1,152,040 bolívares; tonka bean, 2,629 bags, weight 211,319 kilograms, value 1,415,668 bolívares. The other exports were tobacco, horns, copper, *sabadilla*, sole leather, live plants, *divi-divi* and other dye woods, cinchona bark, pearls, fruits, sugar cane products, produce, starch, coal and charcoal, fishes, gums, feathers and bird skins, rubber and gutta-percha, horses, mules, donkeys, hogs, goats, rum, cocoanut oil, corn, etc.

The exports from La Guaira to the United States, according to the same report, were estimated during the calendar year 1895 at 137,410 packages, weighing 3,376,108 kilograms, valued at 4,728,513 bolívares, as follows:

Merchandise.	Packages.	Kilograms.	Value.
			<i>Bolívares.</i>
Coffeebags.....	35, 769	2, 194, 400	3, 419, 522
Cacao.....do.....	2, 474	128, 269	157, 177
Hides.....number.....	98, 069	967, 121	1, 033, 749
Deer skins.....bales.....	542	45, 932	82, 529
Goat skins.....do.....	194	15, 378	20, 454
Horns.....packages.....	51	1, 509	151
Miscellaneous.....	291	23, 499	14, 840
Total	137, 410	3, 376, 108	4, 728, 513

Since the retaliatory duties imposed by the United States were abolished the Venezuelan coffees have returned to the American market, very little going to Europe.

The export of coffee amounted to \$7,984,959.43 in 1896, against \$7,806,195.33 in 1895. The export of hides amounted to \$52,184.84 in 1896, nearly three times as much as in 1894. The export of skins has declined nearly one-half since 1895. Valuable woods are exported in large quantities to Europe, but very little finds a market in the United States.

The statistics published in the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury (Ministro de Hacienda) for 1899, give the following data in refer-

ence to the exports of Venezuela during the fiscal year 1896-97: Number of packages, 4,447,881, weighing 85,839,316 kilos, valued at 93,244,829 bolívares. Of these, 17,703,402 bolívares went to the United States; to France and her colonies, 26,760,126 bolívares; to Great Britain and colonies, 124,302 bolívares; to Germany, 8,809,085 bolívares, and to Holland and colonies, 29,647,256 bolívares. The balance went to Italy, Spain, Austria, Portugal, Belgium, Denmark, and Colombia. The total exports of coffee for the same year amounted to 814,618 bags, weighing 47,372,111 kilos, valued at 65,989,325 bolívares. The exports of cacao were 157,048 bags, weighing 8,867,462 kilos, valued at 9,246,670 bolívares; hides and skins, 275,620 packages, weighing 3,550,264 kilos and valued at 4,396,114 bolívares. These were the principal articles of export.

United States Treasury statements of imports and exports of merchandise give the following figures of United States trade with Venezuela during the fiscal years named:

	1896.	1897.	1898.
Imports from Venezuela.....	\$9,694,911	\$9,543,572	\$7,722,564
Exports to Venezuela	3,888,746	3,417,522	2,746,261

The other leading countries in the Venezuelan trade transacted business with Venezuela in 1893 as follows:

Countries.	Imports from Venezuela.	Exports to Venezuela.	Total.
France	\$8,395,500	\$2,335,300	\$10,730,800
Germany (estimated)	8,500,000	2,000,000	10,500,000
Great Britain	436,403	4,531,287	4,967,690
Trinidad	1,500,000	591,892	2,091,892

The large import into Germany is based on the decrease of coffee exports from Venezuela to the United States from \$8,289,872 in 1892 to \$865,175 in 1893, a decrease caused by the tariff imposed thereon, through the failure of Venezuela to enter into reciprocal relations with this country. According to United States consuls in Venezuela, the greater part of this deflected coffee trade went to Germany.

Exports to Venezuela in 1893.

Articles.	From—		
	Great Britain.	United States.	France.
Cotton manufactures.....	\$2,955,578	\$427,538	\$308,312
Woolen manufactures.....	328,703	1,368	140,124
Iron, wrought and unwrought.....	166,388	58,509	
Hardware and cutlery.....	67,856	115,905	32,628
Implements and tools.....	79,807	51,087	
Machinery and millwork.....	59,015	147,667	
Coal.....	74,391	21,171	
Jute piece goods.....	178,611		
Linen goods.....	264,612		38,080
Carriages.....	5,810	14,921	
Jewelry, manufactures of gold and silver, etc.....		20,797	531,162
Wine.....		386	196,474
All other articles.....	350,516	3,348,312	1,088,520
Total.....	4,531,287	4,207,661	2,335,300

TRANSIT TRAFFIC WITH COLOMBIA.

As has been already stated, Maracaibo serves as a port of transit for the trade of the neighboring Republic of Colombia. It is earnestly recommended that exporters examine and comply with the latest transit law issued by Venezuela, which in substance is as follows:

The passage of all foreign merchandise for Colombia by way of Cúcuta is allowed to the Maracaibo custom-house, subject, however, to all the customs laws of Venezuela. Merchandise whose importation is prohibited shall not pass in transit for Colombia.

Merchandise entered for transit must be declared in separate consular invoices, stating that it is meant for transit, and no package intended for Venezuela may be included therein. Transit goods can not be declared by the importer for consumption. These goods must pay duties in the same manner as those intended for consumption in Venezuela, and, besides, storage dues at the rate of 1 per cent ad valorem. A package that on inspection is found to be not in conformity with the customs laws shall be considered as meant for consumption, if it is not confiscated. Should this package or parcel be a part of the same consignment, the Treasury Department may, at the request of interested parties, declare the entire consignment as meant for consumption, imposing thereon an additional duty of 10 per cent.

Merchandise in transit may remain thirty days in the customs warehouses. After the expiration of this time and three days' grace, if the

merchandise shall not be removed (pursuant to previous notice from the custom-house), it will be considered as meant for local consumption and will be subject to an additional charge of 10 per cent. This provision will not be enforced in case of war or other force majeure which may interrupt the transit of the merchandise. This is of the exclusive dominion of the Executive. Should importers or their agents wish to withdraw their merchandise within the thirty days mentioned, they must present a manifest, in triplicate, which shall set forth the name, nationality, class, and master of the vessel in which it was imported, and furnish the same details with reference to the vessel which is to carry it to Colombia; the marks, number, contents, and value of each package, according to the manifest presented on the importation thereof; the weight, class, and duty imposed upon each package in accordance with the custom-house appraisement. Whenever merchandise in transit to Colombia shall be imported through any custom-house other than that of Maracaibo, the inspection thereof may be proceeded with through payment to the custom-house of the corresponding import duties, and it may be thereafter forwarded coastwise to Maracaibo. This requirement must be complied with within thirty days; otherwise the merchandise will be considered as intended for local consumption.

TARIFF AND CUSTOM-HOUSE REGULATIONS.

Trade and industry enjoy the fullest liberty in the country. There is a commercial code, which shows merchants their duties and rights, and a treasury code, containing the tariff on imports and legal provisions relating to the import trade.

The last tariff law of Venezuela, which went into effect May 21, 1897, with the exception of several modifications of the appraised value of some goods, is identical with the law of 1893, and, like it, foreign merchandise introduced through the custom-houses of the Republic pays the duty corresponding to the class to which it belongs on the gross kilogram of weight.

The first class includes articles free of duty; the second, articles paying a duty of 10 centimes of the bolivar per gross kilogram; third, those paying 25 centimes per kilogram; fourth, 75 centimes; fifth, 1 bolivar 25 centimes; sixth, 2 bolivars 2 centimes; seventh, 5 bolivars; eighth, 10 bolivars; ninth, 20 bolivars.

The modifications mentioned are the following:

First class.—Mineral waters; iron ore and old iron, suitable for foundry purposes; wood ash; residue of pressed grapes for fertilizing;

windmills with all their parts; potato sprouts for planting, when in the opinion of the Executive they are imported for this purpose.

Second class.—Liquid carbolic-acid gas; connections for pipes; glass dust.

Third class.—Raw cotton; asbestos; coaches, carts, and all kinds of vehicle harnesses; gum arabic; pure lard only; poison for preserving skins; wines of all kinds, in pipes, hogsheads, and barrels; *muscovado* or brown sugar.

Fourth class.—White and refined sugars; bituminous oil for blackening and softening harness; ordinary knives for shoemakers, tobacconists, gardeners, and saddlers; painted rope mats for tables; mirrors, framed or unframed; naphtha; lard mixed with other greases; oleomargarine; wooden strips for matchmaking; straw strips for packing.

Fifth class.—Rum of all kinds, except that made from sugar cane, the importation of which is prohibited; brandy and cognac and their essences up to 22° Cartier (exceeding this strength, the duty shall be proportional); cotton batting; gunpowder; plug and twisted tobacco.

Sixth class.— * * * *

Seventh class.—Air guns for target shooting.

Of the articles whose importation was formerly prohibited, the following are at the present time taxed: Raw cotton (third class), white and brown sugar, and wooden strips for matchmaking (fourth class). Of articles formerly dutiable, there have been added to the list of those whose importation is prohibited: Made-up footwear and tanned skins made up into patterns, formerly in the ninth class, and matches of all kinds, formerly in the seventh class. By the former tariff saltpeter could not be imported save by druggists and in small quantities. By the new tariff it may be imported by anyone in unlimited quantities by securing the authority of the Government.

The custom-house regulations regarding the dispatching of vessels and merchandise for Venezuela provide, in substance, as follows:

Every vessel bound for the ports of entry of the Republic must carry its sailing license and be dispatched by the consul of Venezuela, or, in default thereof, by the consul of a friendly nation, acting for him, accredited to the port of departure. The master or supercargo of every vessel dispatched laden for foreign ports and touching in Venezuela must present in duplicate, at every port at which the vessel touches, to the consul for Venezuela a manifest signed by him of all the cargo he may receive in said ports, expressing clearly and in due order the class, nationality, name, and tonnage of the vessel, and the name of the master; the names of the shippers and of the consignees in the ports

of Venezuela; the marks, numbers, and class of the packages of merchandise destined to said ports, accompanied by the corresponding bills of lading, also signed by the master and numbered in strict order. The manifest must also set forth the total number of packages for each port, and that of those destined for Venezuela. The consul of Venezuela shall sign and seal up these documents, together with the other shipping papers, in the presence of the captain, who will retain one copy and sign a receipt therefor at the foot of the other. The master of the vessel must also present to the consul of Venezuela the health certificate, to be countersigned by the latter.

Shippers of merchandise and any other articles destined to the ports of entry of Venezuela must present to the consul of the Republic, or his representative, for certification, their consular invoice made out in triplicate in Spanish, and it must contain the following information: Name of the shipper and port of shipment, class, nationality, and name of the vessel; name of the captain and of the consignee or consignees of the goods, and the port of destination; the mark or marks of the goods, the number, quantity, and class of each package, its contents declared in accordance with the tariff, its gross weight in kilograms, and its value. These invoices must be signed by the shipper. Packages of the same class, weight, shape, and size, containing the same class of goods—for instance, bags, barrels, crates, firkins, etc., containing breadstuffs, soap, crockery, etc., having the same marks and declared in the same invoice—may be declared in one item. Packages bearing different marks may be included in the consular invoices presented for certification whenever the said packages are consigned by the same shipper to the same consignee or consignees. Each invoice must be accompanied by its corresponding bill of lading, which must also be certified by the consul.

Two copies of the manifest, in Spanish, with all the data required by law, must be presented to the Venezuelan consul at the port of clearance, and consul must sign the same and seal it up, together with the other documents, in the presence of the captain, who will retain a copy of the same, and sign at the bottom of each original a receipt for the duplicate.

It is the duty of the consuls of Venezuela to furnish interested parties all the information they request regarding the tariff laws and regulations of the Republic, the forms and blanks for invoices and manifests, and all other necessary explanations. The consular fees for the certificates issued by them are determined by law.

It is hardly necessary to explain that consuls can under no circumstances certify invoices for ports other than those of entry.

Nor can they certify invoices that do not wholly conform with the requirements mentioned, nor such as show differences in the three copies required, nor such as contain changes or interlined words unless these are noted at the end before the date and signature, nor such as fail to have the declaration of the shipper under oath that the value declared therein is the actual value of the goods and merchandise shipped.

Ditto marks (") or the word "do.," to indicate that one or more packages are the same as the preceding articles, are prohibited in invoices.

The ballast of vessels can not contain articles subject to import duties.

XII.

FINANCIAL ORGANIZATION.

The revenues of the country are made up of the products of the direct and indirect taxes collected by the custom-houses, the several treasury departments, and other financial bureaus. The following taxes are classified as direct taxes: Industrial taxes, water tax, real estate tax, and several others that combine to make the revenue of the municipalities. The indirect taxes are, among others, the import duties, salt-mining tax, stamped-paper tax, stamp tax, registry-of-public-deeds tax, etc. A share of this total revenue belongs to the States of the Republic, viz.: the transit duty collected at the land custom-houses, the salt-mining tax, and taxes on public lands and mines.

The distribution of the revenues of the different States is made according to the number of inhabitants in each State. In the fiscal year 1895-96 the revenues amounted to 9,644,981 bolívares.

The national revenue is used for the expenses of the administration—army, navy, justice, public education, public works—and to pay the interest on the national debt.

According to the "General account of the public treasury," in the fiscal year 1895-96 the revenues of the Republic amounted to 51,459,946.98 bolívares, as follows:

Customs revenue:	Bolívares.
Import duties, interests, fines, and storage.....	37,527,033.60
Internal revenue:	
Stamped paper, federal territories, tax on the wharf of Puerto Cabello, real estate, registry, telegraph, consulates, trade marks, patents on inventions, telephones, water, post-office boxes, taxes	1,360,488.28

Public-instruction revenue:	Bolivars.
Tax on cut tobacco, American telephones, school stamps, special collections and reimbursements.....	2,927,443.11
Revenue of the States:	
Mining tax, transit duties, salt tax, and public-land tax.....	9,644,981.99
Total.....	51,459,946.98

The budget for the fiscal year ending June, 30, 1896, estimated the expenses of the country during that year at 34,179,990 bolívares, and the budget for 1896-97 at 40,300,000 bolívares.

During the eleven fiscal years from 1886-87 to 1897-98, the revenue in Venezuela amounted to the following figures:

	Bolivars.		Bolivars.
1886-87.....	38,017,368.81	1892-93.....	36,724,973.09
1887-88.....	39,156,636.65	1893-94.....	51,421,875.66
1888-89.....	45,923,028.00	1894-95.....	48,656,797.36
1889-90.....	45,031,224.86	1895-96.....	51,459,946.98
1890-91 ¹	47,952,533.44	1896-97.....	48,313,539.65
1891-92 ¹	41,566,312.12	1897-98.....	33,429,835.52

CUSTOM-HOUSES AND THEIR REVENUES.

The maritime custom-houses of Venezuela open to foreign commerce are those at La Guaira, Puerto Cabello, Ciudad Bolívar, Maracaibo, La Vela, Carúpano, Puerto Sucre, Guanta, Caño Colorado, Táchira, Güiría, and Juan Griego.

The land custom-houses are those located at La Guaira, Puerto Cabello, Ciudad Bolívar, Maracaibo, La Vela, Carúpano, Puerto Sucre, Guanta, Caño Colorado, Táchira, Güiría, and Juan Griego.

The import duties received at the La Guaira custom-house, including the proceeds of fines, interest, and storage, during the fiscal year ending June 30, 1896, amounted to 17,046,448.15 bolívares.

The receipts of the Puerto Cabello custom-house, including all the revenues above mentioned, those from stamped paper, and the tax on cut tobacco, amounted to	Bolivars.
The receipts of—	
Ciudad Bolívar	3,285,371.87
Maracaibo	6,319,225.15
La Vela	475,032.45
Carúpano	1,152,422.03
Puerto Sucre	163,245.27

¹ These figures only show the customs revenue, as data in regard to the other sources of revenue for the same years were not obtainable.

The receipts of—Continued.

	Bolívars.
Guanta	198,686. 52
Caño Colorado	125,223. 04
Táchira	784,215. 31
Güiria	67,862. 20
Juan Griego	33,507. 99
Total	22,286,749. 42
The land custom-house of La Guaira received during the same year, for imposts on domestic products, on sea salt, and on the transit of foreign merchandise, the sum of.....	
	2,980,047. 25
Receipts of custom-houses for same at—	
Puerto Cabello	1,859,463. 38
Ciudad Bolívar	443,602. 84
Maracaibo	2,168,405. 89
La Vela	145,595. 04
Carúpano	299,233. 47
Puerto Sucre	139,873. 42
Guanta	52,076. 78
Caño Colorado	22,601. 46
Táchira	97,864. 89
Güiria	52,260. 59
Juan Griego	157,984. 72
Total	8,429,009. 73

According to the latest "Memoria de Hacienda" (1899) the net product of the maritime custom-houses of the Republic, in 1897-98, amounted to 21,364,423.64 bolívares, and that of the land custom-houses to 6,427,221.59, making a total of 27,791,645.23 bolívares.

FOREIGN VESSELS ENTERING VENEZUELAN PORTS IN 1894.

The foreign vessels entered Venezuelan ports and their nationality in 1894 were the following:

French	119	Spanish	12
English	133	Italian	29
German	73	Colombian	6
American	148	Venezuelan	705
Dutch	163	Other countries	28

During the fiscal year 1894 there were entered in the several ports of Venezuela 1,418 vessels, of which 643 were steam vessels. Naturally the port of La Guaira received the greater part, as it is the principal harbor of the Republic. Puerto Cabello and Maracaibo were the next in rank, although many smaller vessels constantly trade with the ports of Güiria and La Vela.

The total tonnage of vessels entered Venezuelan ports during the year 1894 was 706,305 tons. The greater part of these were steam vessels, only 40,217 being of sailing craft. Of the total number of tons 319,267 are credited to La Guaira and to belong to steam vessels, while 7,498 represent the tonnage of sailing vessels. The entries of Puerto Cabello were 239,450 tons, of which all except 5,624 represented steam vessels.

PUBLIC DEBT.

The public debt in Venezuela is divided under two principal heads, the foreign debt and the interior debt.

The public debt of Venezuela dates from the separation of the "Great Colombia," composed of Nueva Granada, Ecuador, and Venezuela, which contracted loans in Paris for £2,000,000 in 1822, and in Hamburg for £4,750,000 in 1824. In 1830, the separation of Venezuela being effected, by which the country became a free and independent State, the new Republic invited Nueva Granada and Ecuador to a convention for the purpose of dividing among them the debt contracted for the war of independence.

In 1840, the debt being liquidated, Venezuela accepted as her equitable share $28\frac{1}{2}$ units of the total debt, under the name of foreign debt, for which she emitted bonds in London bearing an interest of 2 per cent per annum for the first seven years, and from the eighth year included, an increase of one-fourth of 1 per cent yearly was granted, until the rate of interest reached 6 per cent per annum.

Venezuela also acknowledged as her debt the interest due on the $28\frac{1}{2}$ units, which had never been paid up to September 30, 1840. On account of the nonpayment of the total rate of interest (6 per cent), for many years, for the payment of this interest, as well as the different balances which had accumulated Venezuela issued bonds for double the amount of her debt. She promised to pay 200 bolívares, at the rate of 5 per cent interest per year, such interest to be reckoned from the 1st of October, 1852, and also to pay 1 per cent of the capital for the first year, increasing it one-fourth of 1 per cent every year until attaining 5 per cent.

In 1863 Venezuela negotiated another loan for the amount of £1,000,000. Congress, in 1896, authorized another loan of 50,000,000 bolívares, at 5 per cent yearly interest, for the purpose of redeeming the 7 per cent guaranty on the capital employed in the construction of railroads, the arrears of the interest accumulated on the same capital, and the expenses incident to the conversion of bonds bearing different rates of interest to a new issue with a uniform rate of interest.

interior debt, consolidated, 17 units of the customs revenue, plus 600,000 bolívars taken from the product of the Caracas waterworks.

In 1895 the Government bought the waterworks of Caracas, paying for it the amount of 10,792,199.44 bolívars in bonds which have the title "Aguas de Caracas" (Caracas waterworks bonds), bearing 5 per cent annual interest, the Government reserving for itself the privilege of redeeming said bonds within two years at the rate of 40 bolívars, gold, for each 100 bolívars in paper. The interest on these bonds is payable quarterly. To discharge this debt the Government has set aside the sum of 150,000 bolívars quarterly, a sum equal to the net returns of the waterworks at the time of the purchase.

On November 1, 1898, the Venezuelan debt stood as follows:

<i>Foreign debt.</i>		Bolívars.
English, 3 per cent.....	66,614,550.00	
Spanish, 3 per cent.....	2,794,773.47	
French, 3 per cent.....	4,900,866.67	
German, 3 per cent.....	7,000.00	
American, 2½ per cent.....	466,247.13	
Total.....	74,783,457.27	

<i>Interior debt.</i>		Bolívars.
Railroad loan, 5 per cent plus 1 per cent.....	48,962,000.00	
Bonds, 1 per cent per month.....	3,544,341.77	
Waterworks debt, 5 per cent.....	10,565,199.44	
Interior debt, 6 per cent.....	63,468,755.47	
Total.....	126,540,296.68	

The grand total was, therefore, on the above date, 201,323,753.95 bolívars, which shows that the Venezuelan debt, compared to that of other Latin-American countries, is the smallest, as it only requires the amount of 1,040,051 bolívars per month, and under normal conditions the custom revenues are more than sufficient to attend to this service. The sums which the Government has paid to the credit of the sinking fund of its various debts from June to December, 1898, are as follows:

		Bolívars.
The railroad loan.....	545,000	
Spanish debt.....	509,300	
German diplomatic debt.....	7,500	
French debt.....	826,645	
Interior 6 per cent.....	1,058,500	
American mixed claims.....	225,000	
	28,300	
Total.....	3,200,245	

XIII.

CURRENCY AND BANKS.

The Venezuelan Government, in reply to a communication of the Government of the United States, under date of October 6, 1896, gave the following official information in regard to the currency laws of Venezuela:

The law in force in the United States of Venezuela with respect to the value of the national money, in gold, in silver, and in nickel, is that of the date of July 9, 1891. It provides that the fineness for gold shall be of 0.900, and for silver shall be of two classes, one of 0.900 and another of 0.835.

The monetary unit is expressly established in article 2 of the law quoted, in these terms:

The monetary unit of the Republic shall be the silver bolívar, which shall be considered as divided into one hundred parts, or centésimos.

The payments of public and private debts are not made on terms of equality with the gold, silver, and nickel national moneys. Those of gold, coined in accordance with the law of the country, are obliged to be received in any quantity whatsoever for the value that the law has given them. Those of silver coined in accordance with the same laws, must be received for those particular matters in the following quantities: Those of 0.900 as far as the sum of 500 bolívares (\$96.50); those of 0.835 as far as the sum of 50 bolívares (\$9.65); those of nickel and copper as far as the sum of 20 bolívares (\$3.96). The gold of Venezuela's coinage is maintained absolutely at the par of the legal unit of calculation in the payment of obligations, and the silver and nickel, also, at the par of the said unit, but within the limitation which has been stated above.

By these arrangements of the monetary law, the unit is the silver bolívar, of 4 grams weight and medium fine, but it is subject in actual payments to the absolute ruling of gold, and in its relative legal appraisement, which, examined by that of 0.900 fine, gives the proportion of 15½ gold for 1 of silver in intrinsic value. Upon these terms the nation coins both metals and authorizes the payment of its debts.

With respect to foreign gold moneys, they circulate in the Republic as if they were merchandise, their price being subject to the relations which exist between supply and demand.

The circulation of foreign silver money is prohibited in Venezuela, and by subsequent enactments, moreover, the introduction of foreign

silver money and even of the silver coined in Venezuela, which for any reason might be imported by private parties was also prohibited.

The unit of silver, or the bolívar, fineness 0.900, and weight $4\frac{1}{2}$ grams fine (it may be five, coined by the first legal stamping), in exchange on London, which, at the date of this report,¹ is 25.80 per pound sterling, should have the value of 97.868 centésimos, because the loss in exchange is 2.132 per cent, the accepted par in the Venezuelan market for English gold being 25.25 per pound sterling.

The monetary unit is determined by law, exists in practice, and is the existing measure of value ruling calculations, protected by the guaranty which is explicitly derived from the limited circulation of the silver bolívar and in the governing circulation of national gold.

The circulation of gold is calculated at 101,538,129.90 bolívares (\$19,596,859.07); silver at 14,000,000 bolívares (\$2,702,000).

In the circulation of gold, the quantity of foreign money which conventionally is current between banks and in commerce without any difficulty to the public, in accordance with its weight and law, and conforming to a tariff of simple agreement, can not be calculated because the law declares foreign gold money to be merchandise.

There are not, nor is it necessary to have, foreign silver moneys in circulation; they are strictly prohibited.

Official paper money does not exist, neither do General Government or State notes, but the circulating bank notes are taken at par of Venezuelan gold as paper money. The following amounts exist, serving as the instrument of exchange in transactions: Notes of the Bank of Venezuela, on June 30, 1896, in hand, 90,100 bolívares (\$17,589.30); in circulation, 1,659,900 bolívares (\$320,360.70); total, 1,750,000 bolívares (\$337,750). Notes of the Bank of Caracas, on June 30, 1896, in hand, 891,780 bolívares (\$172,113.54); in circulation, 742,320 bolívares (\$143,267.76); total, 1,634,100 bolívares (\$315,381.20). Notes of the Bank of Maracaibo, on June 30, 1896, in hand, 480,000 bolívares (\$92,640); in circulation, 720,000 bolívares (\$138,960); total, 1,200,000 bolívares (\$231,600).

Since the money law of 1891, above cited, no change has been effected in the monetary system of the country except the resolutions prohibiting absolutely the importation of foreign silver money, and that concerning Venezuelan silver when the latter is not imported by the Government.

The presentation to the Government of various specimens of coun-

¹ October 6, 1896.

terfeit silver moneys, which had the same model as that determined by law for Venezuelan money, gave cause for this resolution, dated August 14, 1893; also, because the Government had well-founded reasons for believing that its silver money was being falsified in some foreign country.

The manufactures of the country have not experienced any effect practically, either favorable or adverse, by reason of the money, because its price has always been in harmony with its legalized value and its necessity as an element of exchange in transactions as much in 1886 as now in 1896.

What really impedes the creation of new industries is the want of roads, which will cheapen freights and lower interest on capital, because the profits of the existing enterprises scarcely satisfy the costs of manual labor, interest, and the insignificant compensation of the managers.

In wages scarcely any variation has been noticed.

At the present time¹ 43.70 bolívars (\$8.744) of gold money circulate per inhabitant, and 6.02 bolívars (\$1.16) of silver per inhabitant. Total per capita in United States money, \$9.90.

The mint of the country is not in operation inasmuch as there is no coinage of metals. Neither the price of gold nor of fine silver, nor any variations to note, emanate from the establishment.

In the market of the mining district of the Republic the dominating price for 1 kilogram of pure gold is 3,448 bolívars (\$665.40). In the economical year 1895-96 there were exported 1,311.474 kilograms of gold ingots and 4,022,814.60 bolívars' (\$776,403.26) worth of coarse gold.

The bolívar is equivalent to the peseta or franc, with a value equal to 19.23 cents in United States currency. The gold coins in actual circulation are of the denominations of 100, 25, and 20 bolívars, and the silver coins of the denominations of 5, 2½, 2, 1, ½, and ¼ bolívars. The circulation of foreign money is prohibited, and foreign gold pieces, although accepted in circulation, are considered as a commodity and only have a conventional value. The American gold 20-dollar piece is worth 104 bolívars and its fractions in proportion.

There are three banks of issue in Venezuela: The Bank of Venezuela, with a capital of 8,000,000 bolívars and a reserve of 974,753.39 bolívars; the Bank of Caracas, a joint stock corporation, having a capital of 6,000,000 bolívars and a reserve fund of 345,928 bolívars, and the Bank

¹ October 6, 1896.

of Maracaibo, with a capital of 1,250,000 bolívares and a reserve fund of 312,500 bolívares.

These institutions have agents in the principal cities of the country and in some commercial centers of Europe, and in New York, in the United States. They are private institutions, doing a large business in and out of the country. They issue notes payable to bearer at sight on presentation to the main office. There are in Caracas besides these banking institutions two banks of loans and discounts and the Savings Bank.

XIV.

MEANS OF COMMUNICATION.

Communication is favored in Venezuela by the natural means of rivers, lakes, and plains. There are also railroads, wagon roads, and telegraph, telephone, and mail lines, which bring together all the localities in the extensive territory of the Republic.

INTERIOR NAVIGATION.

Of the 70 navigable rivers Venezuela possesses, the Orinoco, the Apure, and the Portuguesa are navigated by steam and sailing vessels carrying on the trade between Ciudad Bolívar, Caicara, San Fernando, Nútrias, Arauca, Camaguán, and Baúl. By the Orinoco and Meta rivers sailing and steam vessels also go as far as Colombia. There are steamers carrying on the trade between Ciudad Bolívar and the British island of Trinidad, and one which transports cattle, by the Orinoco, destined to British Guiana. Steamship communication also exists between Maracaibo and La Ceiba, situated on Lake Maracaibo, Encontrados, on the Oatatumbo River, and San Carlos del Zulia, on the Escalante. The navigation of Lake Valencia is carried on by means of small craft and steamers. The trade between the many points of the extensive coast line of Venezuela is carried on by means of numerous sailing vessels and several steamers daily leaving the national ports. There is a special line between La Guaira and Rio Chico. Two steamers make trips between Puerto Cabello and Tucacas, and another steamer plies on the Yaracui River and on the sea as far as Puerto Cabello. Another steam vessel carries on a coastwise trade from Puerto Cabello, touching at various ports of the eastern coast and entering the Orinoco, to Ciudad Bolívar.

COMMUNICATION WITH FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

Communication with foreign lands is maintained by means of steamships belonging to American, English, French, Dutch, German, Italian, and Spanish companies. The freight and passenger traffic between New York and La Guaira, Puerto Cabello, Coro, and Maracaibo is regularly maintained by the "Red D Line," an American company, dispatching steamers monthly to the three ports first mentioned and to Maracaibo and Coro direct. One or two Dutch steamers, carrying passengers and freight, leave regularly every month for La Guaira, Puerto Cabello, Cumaná, Carúpano, Guanta, Ciudad Bolívar, and other ports, and a Spanish line carries passengers and freight to La Guaira and Puerto Cabello. There is an English line of passenger and freight steamers to Ciudad Bolívar and other points, transshipping at Trinidad. Besides these there are one or more sailing vessels leaving United States ports every month for Venezuela.

Communication with Europe is very frequent, among the principal steamship lines being the French and Spanish trans-Atlantic lines, the Hamburg-American Line, the Italian Line (*La Veloce*), the Dutch Line, the Harrison, Royal Mail, West India, and Pacific. It may be safely stated that Venezuela is in daily communication with the United States, Europe, and the West Indies.

RAILROADS.

The present railroad mileage in operation in Venezuela is 503 miles. Four lines start from Caracas, the capital, connecting it on the north with La Guaira, which is the principal port of the Republic; on the west, by the Gran Ferrocarril de Venezuela, with Valencia and way stations; on the east, by the Gran Central, with Petare and other towns; and on the south, by the Valle Railway, with the city bearing this name. The railway from Caracas to La Guaira, belonging to an English company, is one of the most notable engineering works in Spanish America, owing to the difficulties that had to be overcome in its construction, due to the difference of elevation (2,984 feet) and the irregular conformation of the coast range, separating the capital from the port. Although the distance in a straight line between the two points is barely 5 miles, the length of the railway line is 22½ miles, the smallest radius of the curves is 140 feet, and the maximum grade 3.75 per cent.

In order to attain the elevation of Caracas (3,000 feet) the line had to be built with a ruling gradient of 3.75 per cent, rising to a height of 3,200 feet shortly before reaching Caracas and then falling 200 feet to the terminus. The chief peculiarity of the construction is the extreme sharpness of the curves and counter curves, the generality of which have a radius of 250 feet, while some have as little as 140 feet radius. The line is single, with sidings for the passage of trains that meet. Its gauge is 3 feet. The track winds up the mountain side with immense precipices on one side and towering heights on the other. In some places it runs through cuts 70 feet deep, alternating with short tunnels, of which there are eight, bored through the solid rock, the longest being about 360 feet in length. The continual turning of the steep gradient on the edge of yawning precipices, sometimes as deep as 1,200 feet, is alarming to passengers when first traveling by it. It is a remarkable fact, however, that, notwithstanding the dangerous character of the railway, there has not been a single accident to passengers during the sixteen years it has been in existence, and only once a freight train broke away.

Owing to the sharpness of the curves the driver can not see, at times, beyond 60 feet in front of him, and men called "vigilantes" (watchmen) are stationed at intervals all along the track to look out for landslides or other impediments. One of the greatest difficulties to traffic, and a constant danger to life and the road, was the number of landslides during the rainy season. Fortunately these have been almost totally overcome. The freight cars and passenger coaches are of a neat appearance. The locomotives work very well, but the expense necessary to maintain them in good condition is heavy.

Many of the curves existing when the line was first built have been modified, the earth being more settled.

There are, besides the four lines already mentioned, the following railways in actual operation: From Puerto Cabello to Valencia; from Maiquetía to Macuto; from Guanta to Barcelona; from Carenero to San José; from La Ceiba to Sabana de Mendoza; from El Hacha to Barquisimeto; from Tucacas to the Aroa mines, and from Santa Barbara to El Vigía.

The following are the railroads either in course of construction or under contract: A line starting from the port of Carúpano to several interior towns in the same State; another line from Caracas to Carenero; another from Encontrados, on the Catatumbo River, of the State of Zulia, to La Fría, with branch lines to San Cristóbal and Periquera; and lines from Valencia to Nirgua; Puerto Cabello to Carenero, Coro to

Sabaneta, La Vela de Coro to the city of Coro; Barquisimeto to any one point in the districts of Cabudare and Araure; from Maturín to Caño San Juan; from the right-hand shore of the Orinoco River to El Callao; from the port of Barranquita, on Lake Maracaibo, to Sabana de San Ignacio; and from Port Cabinas, or any other port on Lake Maracaibo, to the city of Carora.

RAILWAY CONCESSIONS AND LEGAL REQUIREMENTS FOR THE SAME.

In May, 1896, the Congress of Venezuela enacted a law authorizing the executive power to contract for the construction and operation of railroads in the Republic.

The Government of the Republic, according to the said law, may make concessions for the term of 75 years, at the expiration of which the railroad lines, with all their real estate and rolling stock, warehouses and buildings, shall pass in a perfect state of preservation to the Government and become the property thereof.

The Government reserves the right to purchase the line and its equipment at any time after the expiration of 25 years subsequent to its conclusion and official opening to public traffic. In such event due notice shall be given to the operating company that the Government will make the purchase at its price or by appraisement, paying a premium of 20 per cent on the market value of the road, or by paying the face value of the securities representing the capital stock of the same with a premium of 10 per cent, the payment to be made to the operating company at the time of transfer.

Article 3 of the law authorizes the Government to grant the exclusive privilege for not more than 40 years for the operation of the road.

Article 5 provides that the Government may contribute to the construction of railroads it may consider of public utility, furnishing a sum of money to be determined upon at the time of the delivery of each 10 kilometers constructed, and stipulating the conditions of the delivery and payment of the subvention with the greatest clearness, and when the subject is perpetual concessions the amount paid shall not exceed 10,000 bolívares per kilometer on railroads over level ground and 20,000 bolívares over broken or swampy lands requiring artificial work, and 30,000 bolívares over mountainous country.

With respect to concessions limited to 75 years the Government may increase the subventions to 20,000 bolívares per kilometer on level ground, 40,000 bolívares on broken or swampy ground, and 60,000 bolívares on mountain lands.

The sixth article of the law makes obligatory upon the owners or construction company the deposit of from 50,000 to 100,000 bolívars in gold or its equivalent in bonds of the public debt of Venezuela. This deposit will be returned to the contractors upon the conclusion of one-third of the line.

The law provides that the time within which the work is to begin must be fixed, and that the said term shall not exceed twelve months, to be reckoned from the date of the approval of the contract by the National Congress.

The time within which the railroad must be finished and opened to public service must also be set out.

The contractor must present to the Government the general profiles of the line within six months after the date of the contract, in order that they may be presented to the National Congress for approval.

Only in unforeseen cases, or *force majeure*, may extensions of time be granted. These must be strictly limited to the duration of the unforeseen cases or the *force majeure*.

The passenger and freight rates must be established by agreement with the National Government, and reduced when the earnings of the railroads for two consecutive years are greater than 8 per cent interest on the capital of the company.

In the event of opposition on the part of the company, the matter shall be submitted to arbitration.

By article 10 the Government is authorized to grant railroad companies the title to lands occupied by the roadbed, stations, offices, and warehouses, and even a greater space on each side of the track or tracks. The grant of public lands shall not be in a continuous strip on each side of the road, but equal strips or parcels shall be left between those granted to the railroad company.

The Government is authorized to make the legal expropriation of the lands belonging to private parties which may be necessary for the railroad, its switches, offices, and warehouses, but the contracting company shall pay for the costs of the expropriation.

The Government may also cause the free admission of the materials, engines, tools, implements, and chattels indispensable to the company and its buildings.

The new lines must be of the same gauge of those with which they connect. The smallest gauge of roads not included in this provision must be at least 1 meter.

Article 13 provides that the maximum grade shall be 3 per cent and

the minimum radius of the curves 90 meters, except in funicular and cog railroads. The legal residence of the companies must be the capital of the Republic, or the terminus of the line, but there must always be an authorized representative at the capital of the Republic. This does not prevent the companies having offices abroad.

No assignments or transfers may be made without the approval of the Government.

All controversies shall be settled by the courts of the Republic, and shall not be the subject of international claims.

Article 18 provides as an indispensable requisite that railway concessions shall be made through contracts drawn up in due legal form.

MAIL SERVICE.

The postal service with the interior of the Republic is well organized, and is effected through the most rapid means of communication between the principal cities and towns in the country, either by rail, by water, or by the highways and the mule paths crossing the mountains, thus shortening the distances.

Foreign mails are carried by the ocean steamers touching at the principal sea ports of Venezuela, thence to the United States, Europe, and the West Indies, thus putting Venezuela in communication with all parts of the world.

Venezuelan mail to and from Mexico, Brazil, Argentina, Uruguay, and Paraguay, is generally carried by way of the United States, though sometimes the service is done by way of the West Indies.

The mail to the Guianas is carried by way of the island of Trinidad.

The mail service between Venezuela and the ports of Colombia, Central America, and Mexico, as well as the republics of the Pacific, is conducted via Colón. Communication with the Antilles is direct.

Comparing the mail statistics of the three quarters from January to October, 1896, with those of the same period of the previous year, there appears an increase in favor of the former of: Letters, 430,465; registered mail, 180,736; official correspondence, 6,705; postal cards, 86,039; printed matter, 842,741; postal parcels, 55,202; making a total of 1,601,888 pieces of mail matter.

The parcels-post system is being tried very successfully. The Government has entered into a parcel-post convention with the United States, which is now in force.

During the first three quarters of the year 1896 there were handled in the post-offices in the Republic—excepting a few offices, the reports

from which had not been received by the Postmaster-General—11,328,796 pieces of mail matter, to wit:

	Domestic.	Foreign.
Letters	2,737,311	2,014,694
Official mail	194,826	36,783
Postal cards	150,883	125,555
Registered mail	137,514	241,414
Samples	48,843	167,866
Printed matter	2,937,710	2,117,221
Parcels from telegraph bureau	70,510	
Parcels from other bureaus	219,953	
Private parcels	118,686	
Total	6,625,236	4,703,533

TELEGRAPH SERVICE.

The telegraph service in Venezuela is steadily developing. The telegraphic network of the Republic is divided into different lines, having a total length of 3,300 miles approximately.

The northern line, between Caracas and La Guaira, is only about 15 miles in length.

The eastern line, between Caracas and Güiria, measures about 450 miles. It has 4 branches, to wit: From Píritu to Caucagua, 16 miles; from Píritu to Clarines, 16 miles; from Cumaná to Maturín, 95 miles; from Barcelona to Aragua, 65 miles.

The southeastern line, between Caracas and El Callao, measures about 680 miles. Its branches are from San Felix to Los Castillos de Guayana, 35 miles; from Callao to El Dorado, 80 miles.

The southern line measures, from Caracas to San Fernando de Apure, about 250 miles; from San Juan to San Sebastián and San Casimiro, 35 miles; from Ortiz to Sombrero, Barbacoas, and Camatagua, 75 miles.

The western line, between Caracas and San Antonio del Táchira, measures 670 miles, and the branches, from San Joaquín to Ocumare del la Costa, 16 miles; from Valencia to Puerto Cabello, 35 miles; from Trujillo to Boconó, 35 miles.

The northeastern line, between Quibor, La Vela, and Port Altagracia, measures 300 miles; from this latter place to Punta del Vino, 1 mile. The submarine branch, from the latter point to Capitán Chico, 4 miles; its extension to Maracaibo, 5 miles.

The southeastern line, from Valencia to Nutrias, measures 260 miles;

the branch from Acarigua to Barquisimeto, 40 miles; from Tinaco to Pao, 25 miles; from Tinaco to El Baul, 65 miles.

By decree of May 7, 1896, special stamps were ordered to be printed for the circulation of telegraphic communications.

The telegraph service in Venezuela is conducted at the expense of the Government in accordance with the law and regulations on the subject. The telegraphic regulations make compulsory the computation of the number of words by the sender of the dispatch as well as by the addressee, a stamp being affixed to each communication.

The rates are as follows:

	Bolivars.
From 1 to 10 words	1. 00
From 11 to 15 words	1. 25
From 16 to 20 words	1. 50
From 21 to 25 words	1. 75

For every 5 words over the above numbers stamps to the value of twenty-five hundredths of a bolivar are canceled.

From 6 p. m. to 10 p. m. the rates given in the above table are doubled, and from 10 p. m. until 7 a. m. they are quadrupled. On Sundays and national holidays the regular rates are doubled, according to the hour when the messages are presented for transmission. Cipher dispatches and those in a language other than the Spanish pay double the regular rates.

Cable.—The submarine cable furnishes communication with the United States and Europe *via* La Guaira to Curaçao, Haiti, Santiago de Cuba, and Havana, at the rate of \$1.60 per word to the United States, and \$1.70 to France, Germany, and England. The French Cable Company charges 50 per cent less on press dispatches.

TELEPHONE SERVICE.

The first telephone company was organized and installed in Caracas in the month of August, 1883, under the name of the Intercontinental, and at the beginning of the year 1889 it had in service 776 instruments between Caracas, La Guaira, Valencia, and Puerto Cabello, maintaining lines of communication between Caracas and La Guaira and between Valencia and Puerto Cabello. The contract with the Government was signed on July 11, 1883.

This company had, at the end of November, 1890, 1,477 subscribers connected with its different offices and an average of 6,000 messages a day.

Another company, called the American Company, was established in 1888 in Caracas, with branches in La Guaira, Maracaibo, and Antimano. The contract with the Government was signed on April 20, 1887.

The said company has been reorganized under different names—one under the name of the Venezuela Telephone and Electrical Appliances, Limited, and the other under that of the American Electric and Manufacturing Company. Competition has cheapened the rates. The first of the said companies, according to the report of its general agent, under date of December 3, 1896, had at that time 2,631 subscribers, of which 1,837 have telephones in Caracas, 216 in La Guaira, 313 in Valencia, 138 in Puerto Cabello, 14 in Santa Lucia, 22 in Petare, 24 in Guarenas, 24 in Guapire, 9 in Charallave, 8 in Cúa, 22 in Ocumare del Tuy, and 1 each in La Mata, Turgua, Caucaguita, and El Guayabo. The other company, generally known as the American Company, competing with the English concern, which is the name given to the first mentioned, has not published the details of its business, but continues operating in Caracas, La Guaira, Valencia, Puerto Cabello, and other points of the Republic, increasing the number of its subscribers, especially in the capital, preventing the monopoly of the other company, and naturally an advance in the rates of service.

According to the manual published in 1892, the American Company conducted the telephone service in Caracas, La Guaira, Maracaibo, and Antimano, and had made arrangements for extending the service in the cities of Victoria, Ciudad Bolívar, Guatire, Guarenas, and in the towns of San Cristóbal and Rubio, in the Táchira section. It then had 1,350 instruments and 1,400 miles of wire, with all the apparatus necessary for a thorough service.

The price of subscription had been reduced to \$2.70 a month for the use of the telephone, and 10 cents for 5 minutes' conversation between the cities connected by the telephone lines.

The Venezuela Telephone and Electric Appliance Company, Limited, has over 2,800 subscribers, divided between its 17 exchange offices. The number of miles of telephone wire controlled by the company is estimated at 3,000, the line being mostly overhead, on wrought-iron posts, having about 2 miles of underground wires in the city of Caracas. Two hundred miles is the longest speaking distance at present. The number of calls in Caracas alone average 13,000, and from 400 to 500 in the trunk lines. Notwithstanding the fact that this is an English company, almost all the material used is of American manufacture.

According to the Report of the Department of Agriculture, Industry,

and Commerce for 1899 there are 13 telephone companies in Venezuela, operating from 30 to 2,737 miles of wire, their aggregate capital reaching 375,000 bolívars.

THE LA GUAIRA BREAKWATER.

Next to the La Guaira and Caracas Railroad, already mentioned, the most important work of engineering in Venezuela is the La Guaira Breakwater, built by an English company, which commenced the work in December, 1885, completing it in June, 1891. In 1887 a terrible storm almost totally destroyed the structure, which was repaired, making it stronger, and an extension was built. The breakwater is about 2,000 feet long, and 40 feet deep at the extreme point; it is all built of concrete, 56 feet in breadth at the base and 30 at the upper part, which rises 12 feet above high water. The breakwater has wharves, beacons, railways, machinery, and every appliance necessary to facilitate the loading and unloading of vessels, passenger traffic, etc. The company who built and controls the breakwater is called the La Guaira Harbor Corporation, Limited, and has offices in Caracas and in London. The company collects certain dues on the passenger and freight traffic, according to tariff.

XV.

INSTRUCTION.

The latest code of public instruction now in force, approved by Congress May 17, 1897, classes education in Venezuela under two heads, public and private. Public instruction is supported by the revenues of the nation, the States, and the municipalities, while private instruction is either acquired at home, or is given by private persons either at home or in institutions created for that purpose.

The federal public instruction is divided as follows: Primary schools for teaching the first rudiments, federal colleges and normal schools for the teaching of more advanced matters, universities for superior and scientific instruction, special institutions for the extension and development of certain branches of knowledge and their application, academies for the furtherance of certain studies by the method of association, and for the best organization in the exercise of certain professions.

The general direction of public instruction is under the charge of the minister of public instruction and of specially appointed boards of

instruction. The States, municipalities, or councils may establish whatever schools and colleges they may deem necessary, but the textbooks, methods, and systems of education are those selected by the Federal Government through the minister of public instruction.

Primary instruction is divided into voluntary and obligatory instruction, both gratis. Obligatory primary instruction is that which the law imposes on all Venezuelans of either sex, and the voluntary instruction embraces all the subjects that the Government may deem advisable to be taught at the educational institutions, it being optional to learn them or not. Religious education is classed among these matters. Primary instruction is given in boys' and girls' first and second grade schools. These establishments must be annexed to the normal schools, and the national executive may create them separately and according to the needs of the country. In the schools of the first grade, religious Catholic education is voluntary for the pupils whose parents should so desire; but instruction embracing the reading of both manuscript and printed matter, writing, elements of arithmetic, metric system, elements of geography, history and political constitution of the Republic, good manners, habits of cleanliness, moral and civic education and calisthenics, and agronomy in the rural district schools is compulsory. Girls will be taught in the first-grade schools, besides the above-mentioned matters, needlework, cutting and sewing, dress-making, and elements of domestic economy. In the second-grade schools the following matters are taught: Writing from dictation, the Spanish language, practical arithmetic, geography, history and the political constitution of Venezuela, universal history and geography, linear drawing, general principles of physics and natural sciences and their application to industry, morals, elements of civil common law, and gymnastics. None but those who have passed the first-grade schools can enter these institutions, after giving satisfactory evidence of this, either by showing the proper certificate or by passing an examination.

The boards of primary instruction are divided into three classes, as follows: Sectional boards, district boards, and parish boards, whose duties are to preserve in the best possible condition, according to law, the system of education under their charge.

Secondary instruction is organized by means of federal colleges, one for boys and one for girls in each school section, to be established regardless of the existence of any others; or those that the national executive may deem advisable to establish whenever and wherever circumstances may demand; and of the normal schools which shall be

established in the Republic for both sexes. Each federal college shall have a primary school annexed. In the federal colleges for boys, the following matters must be taught: Latin, Greek, French, English, German, universal history, grammar, rhetoric, universal geography, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, topography, astronomy, physics, chemistry, elemental philosophy, pedagogy, and topographic drawing. In the federal colleges for girls, the following must be taught: Morals and manners, elocution, arithmetic, grammar and composition, universal geography, French, English, history, drawing, music and singing, hygiene, calisthenics, domestic economy, sewing, embroidery, cutting and dressmaking, and pedagogy.

The normal schools are for the instruction of teachers, and have a federal school annexed. The matters taught in these schools are pedagogy, elocution, caligraphy, Spanish, arithmetic, geography of Venezuela and universal geography, elements of anatomy, hygiene, physiology, civic instruction, gymnastics, music, and drawing; and in the normal schools for young ladies, besides the above, the Froebel system, manual work, domestic economy, and household duties.

Higher or superior instruction is given at the universities, which are situated as follows: The Central in Caracas, the Los Andes in Mérida, the Carabobo in Valencia, the Zulia in Maracaibo, the Bolívar in Ciudad Bolívar, and the Lara in Barquisimeto. The instruction given in the universities embraces the following matters in all their branches: Political, medical, and theological sciences, mathematics, philosophy, letters and pharmacy, dental surgery and veterinary.

There are other special institutions, among which is the school of engineering, where the necessary studies are made to graduate as civil or military engineers, agronomists, and architects. Every one of these courses has its special regulations according to law. There is also a school for mining engineers at Guacipati, in the Yuruari mining district. The other establishments devoted to higher instruction are the School of Manual Training in the Federal district, where, besides the theoretical course provided by law, the following practical courses are given: Masonry, carpentry, blacksmithing, tailoring, shoemaking, and several others. The National Institute of Fine Arts is divided into four sections, as follows: Drawing and painting, sculpture, architecture, elocution, and conservatory of music. The polytechnic school is devoted to the matters pertinent to its object.

Besides the medical, law, and engineering colleges and the medical board established in the Republic (all subject to special regulations in accordance with the code of instruction), there are six more institutions

devoted to the study and development of science and letters, viz: The Venezuelan Academy of Language, the National Academy of History, the Academy of Mathematics and Physical Sciences, the Academy of Biological and Medical Sciences, the Academy of Social Science and Law, and the "Ateneo de Caracas." There are also in Caracas a national library, the national museum, divided into five sections, as follows: History of the country, natural history and archæology, the painting, sculpture, and architecture galleries, and the astronomical and meteorological observatory of Caracas.

For the maintenance of public instruction special laws have been framed creating the following revenues: The proceeds from the school and postage stamps and postal cards and letters deposited in the treasury of public instruction; the interests allotted to its service out of the national consolidated debt; the fines imposed upon the infractors of the provisions of the law in force relating to public instruction; the taxes levied by law on inheritances; the duties on cut and manufactured tobacco imported into the country, and the proceeds of the stamps affixed to each package of cigarettes sold or offered for sale.

The public instruction revenue amounted during the fiscal year 1896-97 to 2,958,232.35 bolívars.

According to the report of the minister of public instruction to Congress, 1898, there were in Venezuela 1,008 Federal schools, the number of pupils registered being 4,225, an average of 3,100 being regular attendants. Said schools were situated as follows: Federal District, 211; State of Bermúdez, 99; State of Bolívar, 41; State of Carabobo, 115; State of Falcón, 60; State of Los Andes, 80; State of Lara, 83; State of Miranda, 210; State of Zamora, 64, and 45 in the State of Zulia.

There are several private institutions of learning for both sexes in all the principal centers and towns in the country.

XVI.

IMMIGRATION.

The immigration law in force offers great advantages to immigrants. The Government endeavors in every way in its power to bring hands to the Republic for the cultivation of its fields and for other industries. Few countries offer so many inducements as does Venezuela, which in her purpose of promoting immigration goes so far as to pay the passage of immigrants and support them for a certain limited time.

The Government, in obedience to the law in the premises, names agents in foreign countries to encourage the current of immigration toward the Republic.

One of the principal duties of the immigration agents is to explain the law to immigrants before they sail for Venezuela.

The immigrants preferred are those who are experts in the branches of agriculture, stock raising, and other industries and domestic arts. The Government pays the passage of European immigrants at the rate of 130 bolívars and of those coming from the United States at the rate of 80 bolívars for each adult person.

Immigrants may go under contract with the governments of the States, companies, or private individuals, the National Government intervening in the terms prescribed by the law; that is to say, that on filing their application, the companies or private persons must set forth the names, sex, age, nationality, and class of persons they need, the climate in which the immigrants are to work, the work on which they are to be employed and the wages to be paid, the concessions for the dwellings and plots for cultivation, and any other conditions that may be desirable which should be set forth. In so far as compatible with the official character of the governments of the States, they are obliged to indicate to the national executive the nationality, sex, age, and class of immigrants desired for the colonization of their territory, adding any other necessary information.

The law provides that the proposals contained in the applications referred to shall be transmitted to the national executive, and upon being accepted by the immigrants, they shall have the force of a bipartite contract between the immigrants and the applicants. According to the law, these contracts shall have a legal force for four years only, at the expiration of which time they may be extended by mutual agreement.

The colonization of citizens or aliens is regulated by a special enactment.

Immigrants are not bound to pay for the public lands they cultivate during the first two years of their residence, but they must pay for the same four years subsequent to taking possession thereof, and they are prohibited from transferring the same during that time.

They are also prohibited from transferring the lands or conveying title until after they have paid the stipulated price for the same, and have proven that they have resided on the land subject of the sale for three years after commencing to cultivate it.

XVII.

PATENT AND TRADE-MARK REGULATIONS.

PATENTS.

The patent law now in force was approved on May 25, 1882, and proclaimed by the President of the Republic on June 2, 1882, repealing the previous law of May 25, 1878.

Pursuant to the said law, inventions or discoveries of a new and useful art, machine, manufacture, or material composition, or any new and useful improvement in the same, provided that the invention, discovery, or improvement shall not have been previously known and used by others, or patented or described in any publication printed in the Republic or elsewhere, and which shall not have been in use and on sale to the public for more than two years prior to the application for the patent, may be patented in Venezuela.

Applications for patents are addressed to the executive power, through the minister of promotion, declaring under oath that the applicant is in fact the inventor or discoverer of the art, machine, manufacture, composition, or improvement sought to be patented.

Patents are issued for the term of five, ten, or fifteen years, and are forfeited in six months, one or two years after issuance, if during all that time the discovery is not put into practice. The letters patent set forth the duration of the same and the time of forfeiture.

The law provides the terms in which the patent or concession is to be couched.

The applications for patents must be accompanied by a voucher showing that the inventor has paid the tax corresponding to one-half the number of years for which the patent is solicited. This tax is 80 bolivars per annum for an invention or discovery and 60 bolivars per annum for improvements.

Should no patent be issued, the applicant loses the amount paid in, but should the patent issue, the amount is credited to the proper number of years.

The Federal Executive may exempt from the established tax inventors of industrial discoveries or inventions which in its judgment may merit such protection.

Foreign letters patent are not an obstacle to obtaining the same in Venezuela, unless they have been already issued to another for the same invention or improvement.

With regard to letters patent issued in other countries, those issued

in Venezuela can not exceed with respect to time the unexpired time limit of the former.

Models, descriptions, and drawings accompanying applications for patents must remain deposited in the ministry of promotion.

TRADE-MARKS.

The trade-mark law now in force was promulgated in May, 1877.

Any person or association residing in the Republic or any corporations created by the national authority may solicit and obtain the protection and guaranty of any legitimate trade-mark, to the use of which they have the exclusive right, provided they comply with the legal requirements. These requirements consist of filing with the Ministry of Promotion¹ an application in the name of the applicant on stamped paper of the seventh class, setting forth his name, residence, and commercial domicile, the kind of articles for which the trade-mark is used, a full description of these articles and of the trade-mark, with facsimiles of the latter, showing its application and method of use, and giving the time the said trade-mark has been in use in case it has been previously used.

The application should be signed by the interested party or by his legal representative, and should state that he has a right to the use of the trade-mark, and that the latter bears no similarity whatever to those previously issued to other parties, and that it can not be mistaken for these or occasion deception.

Facsimiles as well as the descriptions and exact copies of the trade-marks must be registered.

The Ministry of Promotion will not receive applications for trade-marks from any person, association, or corporation which do not have some feature sufficient to distinguish them from those of the same name when in use by different persons or when applied to the same class of object, or which are intended in some way to deceive the public.

The Ministry of Promotion, after the legal requirements have been complied with and in case no protest is filed, issues a certificate on stamped paper of the third class, declaring that the applicant is the owner of the trade-mark registered, with all its specifications, and this certificate will serve as a title, being duly registered and bearing the seal of the ministry.

The exclusive right to the use of a trade-mark of articles not protected by the laws of other countries will remain intact and in force for the term of thirty years reckoned from the date of registrations;

¹ Now the Ministry of Agriculture, Industry, and Commerce.

but during the six months preceding the expiration of this term of thirty years application may be made for a renewal, and the term may be extended for a like period by the issuance of a new certificate similar to the original instrument.

False representations or declarations, as well as any other fraudulent means employed in the application for trade-marks, subjects those guilty of the same to the penalties established by the criminal code of procedure, apart from the civil liability to interested third parties.

Foreign trade-marks registered abroad may also be registered in the Ministry of Promotion, whether international treaties or conventions on the subject exist or not, whenever, in the judgment of the National Executive, the manufactures or articles they protect are deemed to have demonstrated their usefulness.

XVIII.

MISCELLANEOUS DATA.

HOW TO REACH VENEZUELA.

The best way to make the trip from New York to Venezuela, especially to the ports of La Guaira, the principal port of the Republic, Puerto Cabello, Coro, and Maracaibo, which are the most important western harbors, is by the Red D line of steamers, which vessels were expressly constructed for the passenger, freight, and postal services between the United States and Venezuela, under the supervision of the Government, by William Cramps Sons, of Philadelphia.

The vessels sail from the port of New York (Robert's Pier, No. 10, on the Brooklyn side) about every ten days, cleared by the Messrs. Boulton, Bliss & Dallett, successors to the old house of Messrs. Dallett, of Philadelphia, founders of the original line of sailing packets between Philadelphia, La Guaira, and Puerto Cabello.

They ordinarily leave Robert's Pier, No. 10, Brooklyn, on the days designated at 1 p. m., passing between Governor's Island and the Battery, close by the statue of Liberty, and following the channel until they reach the Sandy Hook bar, at 3 p. m. From here they follow a course to Porto Rico, thence to the Dutch island of Curaçao. Those desiring to make a quick trip are transferred on the afternoon of the same day to the steamer which clears for La Guaira, which is reached

early on the following morning. It here receives the mails and passengers and sails before noon for New York. Those who are in no hurry to reach La Guaira and Caracas remain on the steamer which brought them to Curaçao and wait for the sailing of the ship on the following day for Puerto Cabello, distant 111 miles from Curaçao. The steamer lays at Puerto Cabello for a day and a half, affording the traveler an opportunity to visit the beautiful city of Valencia, so as, on the return therefrom, to sail on the following day at night and arrive in a few hours at La Guaira, the distance being very short—only 65 miles—which, owing to the tortuous course followed, is lengthened into 71 miles. The distance from Sandy Hook to Curaçao is not more than 1,763 miles, and from Sandy Hook to La Guaira 1,830 miles. The first-class passage to Curaçao costs \$70, to Puerto Cabello \$75, and to La Guaira \$80. The round trip costs about 10 per cent less.

Those desiring to visit Valencia and to go from there to Caracas may do so by rail. The first-class fare from Valencia to Puerto Cabello is \$2.50 and from Valencia to Caracas \$8.50. The fare from La Guaira to Caracas is \$2.50.

Passengers from New York bound for Coro and Maracaibo are transferred at Curaçao to the smaller steamers of the same line which ply between the said ports and Curaçao.

GENERAL STATISTICAL DATA IN REFERENCE TO THE UNITED
STATES OF VENEZUELA.

Area of Venezuela.....	square miles..	599,358
Cattle-breeding belt or zone.....	do.....	156,496
Forest belt or zone.....	do.....	308,095
Mines. (See note.)		
Extension of railways.....	miles..	515
Public lands.....	square miles..	445,730
Price of public lands:		
For agricultural purposes, per acre.....	dollars..	3.12
For breeding purposes, per square mile.....	do.....	65.32
Coffee plantations.....	number..	32,266
Cocoa plantations.....	do.....	7,037
Sugar-cane plantations.....	do.....	11,061
Cocoanut plantations.....	do.....	1,223
Cattle farms (beef cattle).....	do.....	7,654
Grazing farms.....	do.....	8,906
Beef cattle.....	head..	2,351,590
Horses.....	do.....	208,790

Goats	head..	1, 667, 272
Sheep	do....	176, 668
Mules	do....	89, 186
Swine	do....	1, 618, 214
Asses	do....	382, 810
Agriculturists		382, 188
Annual increase of live stock:		
From 1876 to 1888.....	per cent of increase..	14 to 26
From 1888 to 1898	per cent of decrease..	25
Head of live stock per square mile:		
Horned cattle.....	per cent..	15.037
All other live stock	do....	40.56
Population (1898)		2, 507, 345
Annual increase of population in the last twenty-five years ..	per cent..	1.259
Population per square mile	do....	4.200
Foreign residents		52, 970
Value of exports:		
Agricultural products.....	dollars..	18, 695, 163.11
Cattle products.....	do....	1, 262, 971.73
Forest products.....	do....	371, 142.50
Total imports.....	do....	13, 989, 342.00
Total exports.....	do....	21, 433, 681.40
Public revenue	do....	9, 291, 065.32
Public debt	do....	38, 073, 542.17
Annual budget.....	do....	6, 642, 692.31

NOTE.—There are about 400 mining claims in the Republic, although only very few mines are in actual development. The principal minerals known to exist in the Republic are copperas, ocher, coal tar, alum, amethyst, yellow amber, asphalt, grindstone, antimony, jet, sulphur, pitch, limestone, sulphurated lime, coal, carbonate of lime, copper, rock crystal, quartz, zianite, diamond, tin, phosphates, gaylussite, garnet, granite, iron, guano, kaolin, marble, mercury or quicksilver, opal, gold, oxide of iron, petroleum, building stone, slate, silver, platinum, lead, salt, saltpeter, talc, urao, gypsum, etc.

The principal mines in the Republic are the gold mines of Yuruari, the copper mines of Aroa, and the coal mines of Naricual. The total area of these three deposits is 604,290 acres.

RAILROAD AND OTHER TARIFFS IN FORCE IN VENEZUELA.

La Guayra and Caracas Railroad.—Length, 36 kilometers 605 meters;¹ passengers, first class, 12.50 bolívars;² second class, 8 bolívars; freight, up grade, per 100 kilograms, 4 bolívars; down grade, per 100 kilograms, 3 bolívars.

¹ One kilometer equal to 0.62137 mile (3,280 feet 10 inches); 1 meter equal to 39.37 inches; 1 kilogram equal to 2.2046 pounds.

² One bolívar equal to about 19 cents.

Grand Railroad of Venezuela (Caracas to Valencia).—Length, 179 kilometers; passengers, first class, 45 bolívares; second class, 36 bolívares; freight, per 100 kilograms, 8.50 bolívares.

Puerto Cabello and Valencia Railroad.—Length, 54 kilometers 706 meters; passengers, first class, 13.25 bolívares; second class, 10.50; freight, per 100 kilograms, 5 bolívares.

Bolivar Railroad (from Tucacas to Aroa mines).—Length, 88 kilometers 606 meters; passengers, first class, 32 bolívares; second class, 16 bolívares; freight, per 100 kilograms, 11.56 bolívares.

Southeastern Railroad of Venezuela (from La Luz to Barquisimeto).—Length, 88 kilometers 333 meters; passengers, first class, 23.60 bolívares; second class, 11.80 bolívares; freight, per 100 kilograms, 11.06 bolívares.

La Vela and Coro Railroad.—Length, 13 kilometers 500 meters. Has no definite tariff.

Santa Barbara and El Vigia Railroad.—Length, 60 kilometers; passengers, first class, 28 bolívares; second class, 20 bolívares; freight, each 92 kilograms, 12 bolívares.

Navigation service between Maracaibo and Santa Barbara.—Passengers, first class, 50 bolívares; second class, 20 bolívares; freight, per each 92 kilograms, 1.50 bolívares.

Grand Railroad of La Cúba.—Length, 90 kilometers; passengers, first class, 20 bolívares; second class, 12 bolívares; freight, each 92 kilograms, 0.20 bolívar per kilometer.

Grand Railroad of El Tachira.—Length, 115 kilometers; passengers, first class, 25 bolívares; second class, 12.50 bolívares; freight, per each 92 kilograms, 0.14 bolívar per kilometer.

Southern Railroad (Caracas to El Valle).—Length, 4 kilometers 500 meters; passengers, 1 bolívar; to the Southern Cemetery, 0.50 bolívar.

Maiquetia and Macuto Railroad.—Length, 8 kilometers; passengers, 1.50 bolívares.

Central Railroad of Venezuela.—Length (from Caracas to Petare), 10 kilometers; passengers, first class, 3 bolívares; second class, 2 bolívares; freight, per 100 kilograms, 1 bolívar.

Carenero and San José Railroad.—Length, 33 kilometers. Traffic stopped; no definite tariff.

Guanta, Barcelona and Naricual Mines Railroad.—Length, 36 kilometers 410 meters; passengers, first class, 4 bolívares; second class, 3 bolívares; freight, 100 kilograms, 2 bolívares.

Port of Guanta.—Vessels, for each ton, 0.05 bolívar; for each 100 kilograms freight, loaded or unloaded, 0.10 bolívar; Venezuelan vessels, 5 per cent less; cartage of freight from the vessels to the custom-house, or vice versa, for each 100 kilograms, 1 bolívar; coal from the Naricual mines, per 100 kilograms, 0.05 bolívar.

La Guaira Harbor Corporation (breakwater).—Loading and unloading vessels, for each 100 kilograms, 2 bolívares; for packages weighing over 200 kilograms, per each additional 100 kilograms, 4 bolívares; coal and other minerals, 100 kilograms, 0.50 bolívar; cattle, per head, 2.50 bolívares; horses, per head, 3 bolívares; passengers, first class, 3 bolívares; second class, 2 bolívares; wharf and beacon dues: Vessels, per ton, 0.10 bolívar; loading or unloading, per 100 kilograms, 0.10 bolívar.

Wharves of Encontrados.—Loading or unloading vessels and stevedore service, per 100 kilograms, 0.75 bolívar.

AVERAGE PRICE OF BUILDING MATERIAL IN CARACAS, VALENCIA, AND MARACAIBO.

CARACAS MARKET.

	Bolívars.
Mangrove (<i>Rhizophora mangle</i>), beams:	
7 varas in length (5.35 yards).....	5
6 varas in length (4.50 yards).....	4
5 varas in length (3.82 yards).....	3
Zapatero (<i>Peltogyne floribunda</i>), Yaga and Maya, beams:	
7 varas in length (5.35 yards).....	6.50
6 varas in length (4.50 yards).....	5.50
5 varas in length (3.82 yards).....	3.50

Timber, called "heart woods," comprising the following: Vera (*Guayacum arboreum*), Araguaney (*Tecoma spectabilis*), Bálsamo (botanical name unknown), Cartán (*Centrolobium robustum*), Red Oak (*Tecoma pentaphylla*), Puy (*Tecoma serratifolia*), Nispero (*Achras sapota*), Gateado (*Astronium graveolus*), Canalete (*Aspidosperma excelsum*), Guayabo (*Eugenia moritziana*), Amarillo (botanical name unknown), Angelino (*Homalium rasemosa*), and Divi-divi (*Cæsalpina conara*), is sold at the rate of 0.50 bolívar per square foot or in planks for lintels of 3 varas.

Timber, called "sawing woods," as, for instance, Cedar (*Cedrela odorata*) and Mahogany (*Swietenia mahagoni*) are sold in quarter pieces.

	Bolívars.
Timber, per square foot	0.50
Timber, in boards.....	1.00

VENEZUELA.

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Apamate (<i>Tebuia</i> sp.):	Bolivars.
Quartered, 2 by 3 inches, per square foot.....	0.42
Boards, per square foot.....	.42
Siding, $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and 1 inch per square foot.....	.50
Jabillo (<i>Hurra crepitans</i>):	
Quartered, 2 by 3 inches, per square foot.....	.42
Boards, per square foot.....	.42
Siding, from $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and 1 inch, per square foot.....	.50
Mihao or Mijao (botanical name unknown):	
Quartered, 2 by 3 inches, per square foot.....	.36
Boards and siding, per square foot.....	.36
Tuque (botanical name unknown):	
Quartered, 2 by 3 inches, per square foot.....	.50
Boards and siding, per square foot.....	.50

MARACAIBO MARKET.

Timber, called "heart timbers," from 5 to 10 varas in length and—	Bolivars.
5 by 5 inches, 6 by 6 inches, and 5 by 6 inches, at the rate of.....	2.00
6 by 7 inches, and 7 by 7 inches, at the rate of.....	2.50
7 by 8 inches, at the rate of.....	3.00
8 by 9 inches, $8\frac{1}{2}$ by 8 inches, and 7 by 9 inches, at the rate of.....	4.00
12 by 12 inches, and 12 by 13 inches, at the rate of.....	8.00

"Jabillo" timber, in logs, from 3 to 8 varas and 12 by 15 inches in thickness, sell at the rate of 4 bolivars per vara, and oak, in logs, from 3 to 6 varas and 12 by 19 inches, are 6 bolivars per vara, while mahogany logs, 3 to 6 varas and 12 by 18 inches, bring 12 bolivars.

VALENCIA MARKET.

Beams 6 varas in length.....	Bolivars.
Beams 5 varas in length.....	3.00
Beams 4 varas in length.....	2.50
Boards 4 varas in length, for lintels and flooring, per board.....	2.00
Square timber for planking, per vara.....	8.00
	4.00

BUILDING MATERIALS.

CARACAS.

Adoboncitos (species of brick), per 1,000.....	Bolivars.
Tiles, per 1,000.....	100.00
American tiles, per 1,000.....	112.00
Adobitos (species of brick), per 1,000.....	84.00
Panelas (species of brick, one-half foot), per 1,000.....	89.00
Panelas (species of brick, one-quarter foot), per 1,000.....	120.00
Panelones (species of brick), per 1,000.....	100.00
Wedges.....	1,000.00
Laths and shingles.....	89.00
Lime: Spanish measure, "cahiz," about 460 kilograms, per measure.....	89.00
Sand and stone, per cart load of 500 kilograms.....	36.00
	{ 2.00
	2.50

MARACAIBO.

	Bolivars.
Stone for masonry work (cubic meter)	8.00
Lime, per "fanega," 2 bolivars, or per cubic meter	14.00
Gravel and coarse sand, 1 bolivar, or per cubic meter	8.00
Bricks, 11 by 11 by 1½ inches, per 100.....	12.00
Bricks, 11 by 6 inches, per 100.....	12.00

VALENCIA.

Lime, per sack of one-third cubic meter.....	2.00
Bricks or panelas, per 100.....	48.00
Tiles, per 100	56.00
Stone, per cart load (about 500 kilograms)	2.50
Sand, per cart load (about 500 kilograms)	1.00
Adobes, per 1,000	100.00

WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

The metric system of weights and measures is the legal standard in Venezuela, although the old Spanish system is still in vogue. The following are the principal ones:

Almud	= 7	quarts.	Libra	= 1.0161	pounds.
Arroba (dry)	= 25.4024	pounds.	Onza	= 0.696	ounces.
Arroba (liquid)	= 4.236	gallons.	Quintal	= 101.61	pounds.
Fanega	= 1.599	bushels.	Vara	= 33.384	inches.
Fanegada	= 1.78	acres.			

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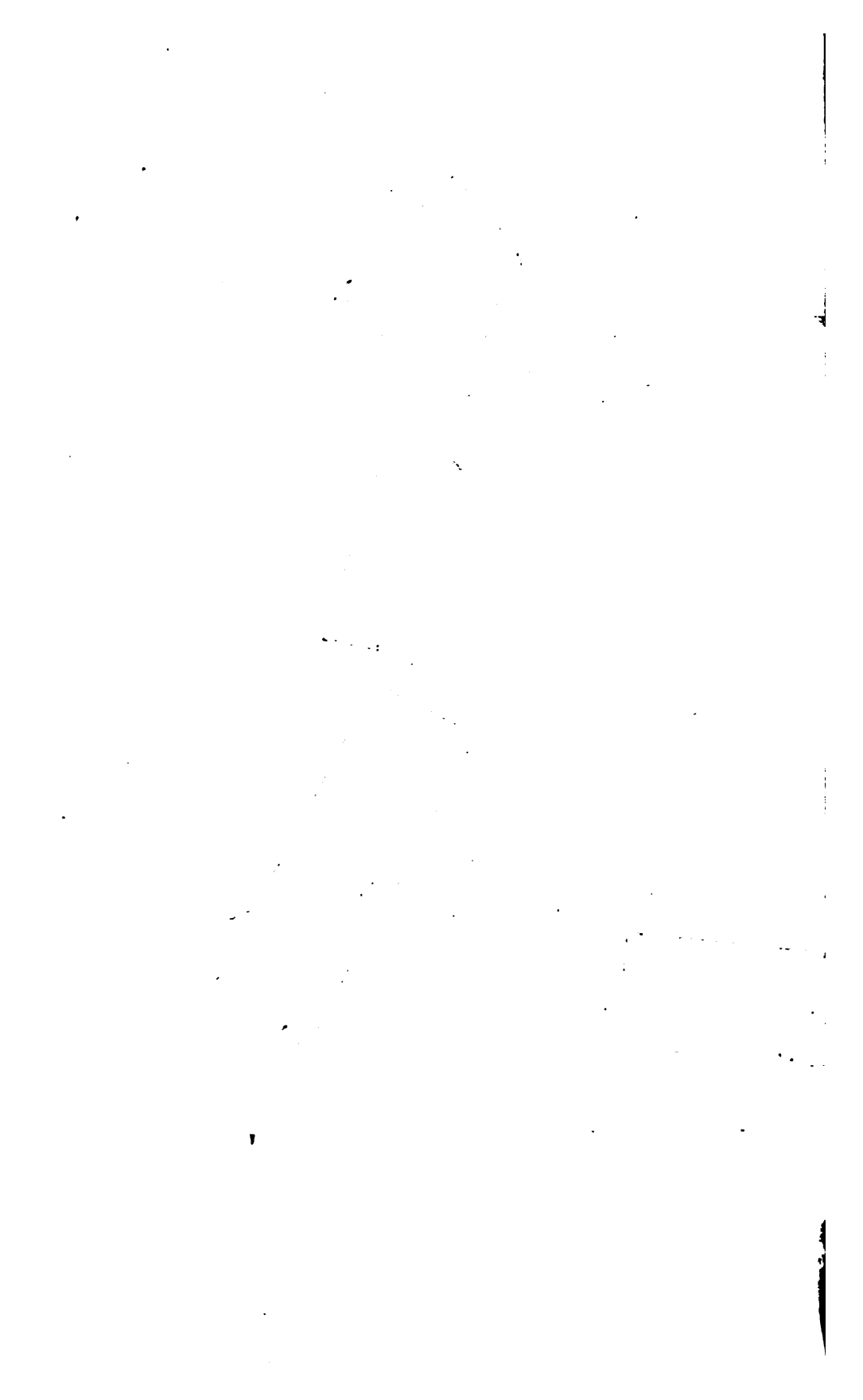
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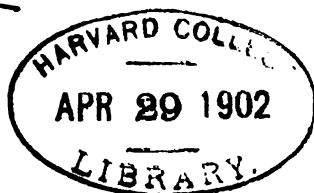
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Bureau of the American
Republics

INTRODUCTORY NOTE.

The British Board of Trade in the year 1898 appointed Mr. T. Worthington its special commissioner to inquire into and report upon the conditions and prospects of British trade in certain South American countries. The results of Mr. Worthington's labors in connection with his commercial mission have been published in six parts, covering Chile, the Argentine Republic, Brazil, and Uruguay, and were presented to both Houses of Parliament by command of Her Britannic Majesty.

The Bureau of the American Republics, recognizing the great importance and comprehensive nature of these reports, as well as the varied and instructive commercial features of the same, which should have a direct and lasting effect on American trade and industry, herewith publishes them in extenso, barring a few slight and unimportant omissions, indicated in the text by asterisks, which, however, refer solely to transmission of samples.

WASHINGTON, D. C.,
October, 1899.

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COMMERCIAL MISSION TO SOUTH AMERICA.

Reports received from Mr. T. Worthington, the special commissioner appointed by the board of trade to inquire into and report upon the conditions and prospects of British trade in certain South American countries.

FIRST REPORT CHILE.

VALPARAISO, *April 14, 1898.*

THE SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF TRADE:

SIR: In conformity with the instructions contained in your letter of 21st of December last, I left Liverpool on the 27th of January, and arrived at Santiago, the capital of Chile, by the overland route from Buenos Ayres on the 2d of March, and here on the 4th of March.

The first of the main objects of the inquiry you have directed me to make is "to determine whether any, and, if so, what, causes have brought about in any branch of trade a diminished demand for articles of British produce or manufacture, either absolutely or relatively to the demand for similar articles produced in other countries."

The second is "to ascertain in what directions, and under what conditions, a demand for British goods might be created or increased."

Before proceeding to relate the results of my investigations regarding the competition of foreign-made articles with those of British manufacture, it will not be out of place to consider what the total amount of merchandise cleared from bond from the principal manufacturing countries, for consumption at all Chilean ports, has been for a series of years. The Chilean custom-house statistics in this matter are fairly complete. The valuations being almost all on a fixed basis, which has not been altered (until now) for some twenty years, the figures afford a good comparative index, though not, perhaps, a correct statement of market values,¹ while the names of the countries whence the goods are imported being given generally according to the flag of the importing vessel² afford, as a matter of fact, a fairly correct indication of the origin of the goods, at least as regards British merchandise. Belgian and other continental goods are, however, largely mixed with German in the statistics.

¹ See also Note 1, page 39.

² On inquiry being made of Mr. Worthington as to the accuracy of this statement, and his attention being called to the fact that, according to the Chilean trade statistics, imports are registered as coming from the country from which the vessels have sailed, that gentleman states that, while admitting that the official statistics do so classify the imports, he understands "from the administrator of the custom-house himself that up to the end of 1896 the imports were based, as a rule, on the flag of the ship bringing them."

The figures for the years 1887 to 1896 (1897 figures are not yet complete) for the four chief countries, given in millions of dollars, are as follows:

Year.	Great Britain.	Germany.	United States.	France.
1887.....	\$20.4	\$11.6	\$3.2	\$5.5
1888.....	26.3	14.0	3.1	6.1
1889.....	27.9	14.8	3.8	6.5
1890.....	29.5	15.7	5.2	6.8
1891.....	27.8	12.1	4.1	4.9
1892.....	34.1	21.0	4.6	6.7
1893.....	30.8	17.0	4.5	4.1
1894.....	25.5	12.3	3.7	2.3
1895.....	32.0	17.3	4.5	1.6
1896.....	30.2	20.1	6.8	2.8

The average of the first three years compares with that of the last three thus:

Country.	1887-1889.	1894-1896.	Increase.	Decrease.
Great Britain.....	\$24.9	\$29.2	\$4.3	-----
Germany.....	13.5	16.6	3.1	-----
United States.....	3.4	5.0	1.6	-----
France.....	6.0	2.2	-----	\$3.8

The average of 1891-1893 with that of 1894-1896 thus:

Country.	1891-1893.	1894-1896.	Increase.	Decrease.
Great Britain.....	\$30.9	\$29.2	-----	\$1.7
Germany.....	16.7	16.6	-----	.1
United States.....	4.4	5.0	\$0.6	-----
France.....	5.2	2.2	-----	3.0

In dealing with "the several articles or classes of articles produced by foreign manufacturers, and competing with British made goods," I have naturally had to make inquiries regarding a very large number of articles in the case of which either there is, on the one hand, no serious competition, or, on the other, competition has proved practically successful and the foreign article has become established in the market. I now proceed to give my report, following as far as possible, in grouping the particulars obtained, the classification given in the lists set out on pages 17-20 of the Blue Book, C. 8449 (the dispatch from Mr. Chamberlain of 28th of November, 1895, to the governors of colonies and the replies thereto), and mentioning only special causes, where such exist in specific cases, of a diminished demand for British goods. The general causes affecting all cases of diminished demand, and considerations as to how the demand for British goods might be created or increased, I deal with afterwards.

PRELIMINARY NOTES.

1. Prices, when not otherwise stated, are wholesale, in currency, duty paid.

2. Terms, when not otherwise stated, are 6 per cent discount, for payment in about three months.

3. Exchange, for purposes of calculation, may be taken at 17½ to 17½ per dollar, on about which rates the sales mentioned here have been based.

4. Duties, when not stated, can be taken from the new tariff (tariff of valuations of December, 1895, and law 980 putting same in force from 1st of January last, and giving rates of impost on the several valuations), copies of which are no doubt available at the principal chambers of commerce. * * * A caution is, however, necessary here, namely, that in many cases doubt exists as to the heading under which an article may be passed, and to avoid mistakes, merchants having houses here should be consulted. One per cent must always be added to the rate of impost for custom-house store rent, making 25 per cent really 26 per cent, 35 per cent 36 per cent, and so on; I have so added it in stating duties. Many goods referred to were imported under the old tariff, and business has not yet become generally adjusted to the new basis, which, in the majority of cases, is a considerably higher one.

5. Increases and decreases referred to are generally based upon a comparison of the custom-house figures for goods cleared from bond for 1896 with those for 1890 and 1891.

REPORT.

Alkali.—The import of caustic soda (for native soap boilers) from England has increased largely, while that from Germany has fallen off.

Apparel and slops.—In made clothing England has increased largely, while Germany and France have fallen off heavily.

Arms and ammunition.—The Government import their own. Messrs. Krupp have an agent here, and most of the Government supplies in 1896 came from Germany. The appointment, upon terms which would compensate him for work done, of a thoroughly competent resident agent who would be a persona grata in Government circles, should be worth the consideration of some of our large manufacturers, albeit results could not always be traced to his agency. The Chilean commander in chief is a German.

Outside Government work the trade is small. English arms apparently have less sale than formerly, while the figures for continental and United States makes show large increases.

Powder, both mining and sporting, is made in the country, the import trade being quite small and apparently declining. Empty shot cartridges are imported from Belgium, but ball cartridges are all imported loaded. The latter come, too, chiefly from the Continent, whence the shipment of explosives is reported to be less hampered than from England.

Bags, empty.—There is practically no foreign competition with gunnies from India, either direct, via England, or via Hamburg, whether for wheat, nitrate, or ores, but flour sacks are almost all made in the country from United States cotton osnaburgs, which consequently have a large sale. (See under Cotton manufactures, p. 11.)

Beer and ale.—This trade is now practically in the hands of the native breweries, of which there are four fine large ones, which send their wares up and down the coast, besides numberless small ones. The imports are comparatively trifling, and those from Germany have come down to a tenth of what they were five years ago. The duty has just been raised to \$3 per dozen bottles.

Candles.—Common dips are made in the country, but there is a large importation, which has increased 50 per cent, of candles, mostly from Belgium. There is a little trade from England which has also increased, but the English article is apparently too good and does not compete in price. I forward two sample packets marked E1 and E2 of Belgian

candles, duty on which is 36 per cent on a valuation of 90 cents per kilo, or 32.40 cents per kilo including paper packing, but not case. Six candles are in the small packets (220 and 240 grams) and four in the larger; 25 packets are in a box, and the boxes are bound together, forming a sort of open crate for shipment. Freight comes out at 3.08d. per box of 25 packets. E1 is of the first quality, costing c. i. f. at Antwerp, per packet, as follows: 240 gram packets, 2.13d., and 340 gram packets, 2.86d. E2 is of the second quality, costing c. i. f. at Antwerp, per packet—220 grams 1.71d.; 240 grams 1.78d.; 300 grams 2.13d.; 320 grams 2.25d.; 340 grams 2.41d., and 360 grams 3.25d.

Railway carriages and wagons.—The railways in southern Chile almost all belong to the State, and the trade in rolling stock is chiefly by tender. Of late years the United States have been most successful. Much, however, is done locally, as at present tenders for rolling stock from local makers are preferred if not more than 15 per cent higher than those from importers or than maximum prices fixed for the foreign article. I inclose the announcement of conditions of tender for some narrow-gauge locomotives and rolling stock recently called for.¹ The tenders of four local iron foundries and machine shops were accepted, as per newspaper cutting herewith.² No tenders are advertised for at present.

Glass.—The trade in silvered glass for looking-glasses is a comparatively small one, and is now almost monopolized by Germany.

Glassware for table use, etc. The German and Belgian imports have increased, while the English have fallen off. The English production is not cheap enough.

Common bottles.—There is a large import from Germany and Belgium, which has increased threefold in five years. The English trade has declined to below 5 per cent of the whole. There is a considerable native factory of common kinds, but the bottles are reported somewhat wanting in strength. Demijohns, cased in wickerwork, for wine, are imported from the Continent.

Windowpane glass comes chiefly from Antwerp. Here, again, the German and Belgian import has increased about as much as the English has diminished. The cheaper freights by steamer from Hamburg and Antwerp, and by sailer from the former port, than from Liverpool are considerably in favor of the continental manufacturer in such cheap and bulky merchandise as glass. In January, I am informed, the rate per steamer from Antwerp on windowpane glass was 20 francs and 5 per cent per 1,000 kilos, against 22s. 6d. and 5 per cent from Liverpool, or, say, 17s. 6d. against 23s. 7½d. per ton.

Cement.—German competition is felt, but the English import has increased, while the German (including Belgian) has declined. English cement sometimes comes in the German vessels from Hamburg, the agents for which receive it in London, take it to Hamburg by steamer, and bring it out at a through freight from London to this coast of about 12s. per ton. I mention this to show how cheaply the German product can come.

Coal.—Consumption is estimated at about 1,200,000 tons per annum, of which about half is native, and of the other half about two-thirds is New South Wales, and the remainder West Hartley and other good English coal. The native coal is soft and does not compete for mining and other industries involving expensive carriage, and thus it does not appear to have gained any proportionate advantage over the imported

¹ See Appendix No. 1, page 41.

² See Appendix No. 2, page 43.

article. It is worthy of note that much of the English coal comes to the nitrate ports in French bottoms—large vessels with several holds—whose owners buy the coal on ship's account and sell each hold to separate buyers, with contract for delivery at the rate of 100 tons per day from each, so that great dispatch is secured. As these vessels get a mileage bounty from the French Government, they sell their cargoes profitably at a rate which would leave the English shipper a loss, after paying ordinary freight of 2s. 6d. a ton or more.

Cotton yarn, in the absence of any cotton-weaving industry, is not wanted. It is free of duty by the new tariff. There is plenty of English and German capital represented here ready to take up such an enterprise as a cotton-weaving mill (indeed the establishment of a mill has been, I understand, carefully considered), did circumstances warrant the expectation of making it a success, but apparently they do not.

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

As indicated in the foregoing paragraph, these are all imported.

White shirtings, drills, etc.—English goods hold the market, but there is also a comparatively insignificant importation from the United States, and, apparently, also from the Continent. * * * I send a sample of United States bleached drills, "Globe D" quality, about 27½-inch goods (29 inches in the grey), which have been selling lately at 26 cents per yard, less 6 per cent for cash in 60 days.

Domestic, grey drills, etc.—The same remarks apply to these as to white shirtings, except that United States competition is becoming felt. I send two samples of the United States domestics marked A1 and A2. A1 represents the Massachusetts "O" quality, which is sold almost exclusively for Bolivia, recently at 75d. (6s. 3d.) per 40 yards f. o. b. at Antofagasta (the Chilean port of entry for Bolivia). A2 represents the Massachusetts "A" quality (the heading is similar to the "O" quality), which is a wider cloth, and sells here at present at 21 cents per yard, less 6 per cent for cash in 60 days.

I also send two samples of the United States grey drills, marked A3 and A4. A3 represents the Massachusetts "D" quality, which has been sold recently at 22 cents per yard in 100 bale lots; A4 represents the "DN" quality, sold recently at 21 cents per yard in 100 bale lots; terms, less 6 per cent for cash in 60 days.

* * * I send a sample of United States *cotton Osnaburgs*, heretofore referred to, for making flour sacks. These goods sell freely at present at 16 cents per yard, less 6 per cent for cash in 60 days.

* * * I send a sample of United States *cotton flannel*, the present price of which under normal conditions would be 31 to 32 cents per yard, but owing to oversupply 200 bales were sold recently at 27 cents; terms as above.

It will be observed that a shorter credit than the usual one is exacted in the sale of these United States goods. It is further to be noted that these are goods which can almost all be sold in large lines, and can therefore be bought in quantity; moreover, owing to the insufficiency of outward cargo from New York for the large steamers, which come to this coast to take nitrate back, very favorable freight arrangements are obtained.

In *cotton prints* and common qualities of *trouserings* (1.625d. to 3d. per yard), upon which the demand chiefly runs, the English goods practically hold the market. The trade in better qualities of printed *trouserings* is comparatively small.

In *printed flannelettes* also the great bulk of the business is in English goods. A certain amount (perhaps 20 per cent of the whole) of continental goods do, however, find a market. I forward a sample of Italian goods, * * * sold at 50 cents per meter. Duty is on a valuation of \$2 per kilo at 26 per cent, or 52 cents per kilo. As prints the valuation of these goods would be \$3 per kilo, but the raising suffices to make them cotton flannel.

In *woven colored goods* the great bulk of the trade in Oxfords, tickings, etc., is English, but in trouserings German goods prevail. I send the following samples, viz:

B1. German cords, 68 centimeters wide, at 70 cents per meter (484 meters in case weigh 112 kilos). Duty 26 per cent on custom-house valuation of \$1.80 per kilo, or 46.80 cents per kilo.

B2. German trouserings, 120 centimeters wide, at 85 cents per meter. Duty 46.80 cents per kilo, as B1.

B3. German trouserings, 120 centimeters wide, at 95 cents per meter. Duty as before.

B4. German trouserings, 120 centimeters wide, \$1.20 per meter. Duty as before.

B5. Italian cords sold at 60 cents per meter. Duty as before. These goods were bought in Italy at 64 lira cents per meter; they weigh about 20.80 kilos per 100 meters. A trial order sent to England could not be executed.

B6. Italian trouserings, 120 centimeters wide, at 75 cents per meter. Duty as before. These goods came in under old tariff, however, under which duty only amounted to 43.225 cents per kilo.

B7. Black Italian cords, 120 centimeters wide, sold at \$1.15 per meter. Duty works out 25.20 cents per meter.

B11. German trouserings, 120 centimeters wide, 48 pounds to 50 meters, cost importers—an English house—1 mark per meter, 4 per cent discount, f. o. b. Hamburg; free packing.

Cotton velveteens are mainly supplied from the English market, and velveteen cords entirely so.

I forward two samples, B8 and B9, of Belgian cotton and linen ticking, an article in which by far the larger part of the trade is Continental. The samples are of goods 160 centimeters wide. The duty is on a valuation of \$3 per kilo at 26 per cent, say 78 cents per kilo. B8 has been selling at 95 cents per meter and B9 at \$1 per meter.

Both were probably imported prior to the new tariff; the old duty only amounted to 54.60 cents per kilo.

In *stockings and socks* the Continent has the major portion of the trade. I send five samples of German goods, marked C1, C2, C3, and C4, all assorted sizes, 9, 9½, 10, 10½, and 11, dispatched from custom-house under the old tariff. I also note duty under the new tariff:

	Old duty.	New duty.
C1. Socks, at \$2.40 per dozen.....	68.25 cents per dozen..	\$1.08 (\$3 at 36 per cent).
C2. Socks, at \$4 per dozen	68.25 cents per dozen..	\$1.08 (\$3 at 36 per cent).
C3. Socks, at \$1.90 per dozen	36.40 cents per dozen..	54 cents (\$1.50 at 36 per cent).
C4. Stockings, at \$5.30 per dozen.....	68.25 cents per dozen..	\$1.08.
C5. Stockings, at \$1.85 per dozen.....	81.85 cents per dozen..	54 cents.

The distinction between qualities is not always clear, and it is possible all the above might pass at the lower duty.

The trade in *reel thread* is almost confined to British goods, but in ball thread there is a good deal of competition from the Continent.

Cotton rope for driving machinery is not used; the natives are accustomed to the leather belting, which, moreover, is made to a considerable extent in the country.

Woolen and worsted yarn.—The two native cloth factories, I understand, make their own yarn; and there is no import to speak of. Embroidery wools come chiefly from Germany; they are admirably gotten up.

WOOLEN AND WORSTED MANUFACTURES.

Plain cloths.—In plain common woolen and worsted (and mixed) cloths for men's clothing English goods now have the largest share of the trade; but the import of German goods is large, nevertheless. I forward the following sample of latter, viz: D3. 138 to 140 centimeters wide, sold at \$3.10 per meter. Duty, 26 per cent on a valuation of \$2.40, or 62.40 cents per kilo.

In better quality goods and worsted suitings the demand is comparatively limited. Tailors import enough for two suits of a pattern. This trade is done through travelers for London and Paris houses; mostly Frenchmen, I am informed.

Dress goods.—In woollen (and mixed) dress goods for women Continental goods are rather more used than English goods, and their import has increased in a larger proportion. I forward a sample * * * of French goods, 94 to 95 centimeters wide, sold at 85 cents per meter. Duty at rate of 26 per cent on a valuation of \$6.60 per kilo, or about 28½ cents per meter; but importation was made under old duty, which amounted to 17.30 cents per meter.

Flannels are not separated in the statistics from cotton flannelettes, so that it is impossible to judge of the position held by English pure flannel; but Continental goods seem to come in very cheap. The old-fashioned "baizes" are going out gradually.

Blankets are made to some extent in the country, otherwise the consumption seems to be about evenly divided between England and the Continent. The old-fashioned "poncho" is slowly becoming less in vogue.

Carpets and druggets.—The trade is mainly in English tapestry carpets of qualities about 11d. to 1s. 2d. per yard. There is some Continental competition, but no American. Thick wollen saddle felt comes from Germany. I forward a sample * * * of goods 110 to 115 centimeters wide, sold at \$6 per meter. Duty on a valuation of \$2.40 per kilogram at 26 per cent, or 62.40 cents per kilo (123.20 meters in case weigh 233.50 kilos).

HARDWARE AND CUTLERY.

[NOTE.—Dollar prices under this heading, and under "Implements and tools of industry," and "Metals," are, unless otherwise stated, per dozen or per gross, as the case may be; case lots would be on an average about 10 per cent less.]

Hollow ware.—In cast-iron goods the tinned ware is practically obsolete. In the enameled articles—pots, fry pans, stew pans, etc.—the British article is now almost entirely superseded by the German make, owing solely to the much lower cost of the latter, as in quality the German is very inferior to the British. I forward a sample, No. 109, of German cast iron enameled pot (No. 4) at 19s. 7d. per dozen, less 42 per cent, packing free, f. o. b.

A comparison of the cost of the various sizes of German and English makes has been given me, the prices being in English pence, per pot, f. o. b.:

	Capacity.	Price of—	
		German pot.	English pot.
No. 3.....pints..	2	d. 10. 55	d. 14. 04
No. 4.....do.....	3	11. 12	17. 28
No. 5.....do.....	4	12. 01	19. 44
No. 6.....gallons..	3	14. 62	23. 22
No. 7.....do.....	1	16. 22	27. 54
No. 8.....do.....	1½	18. 50	32. 94
No. 9.....do.....	1½	20. 64	39. 89
No. 10.....do.....	1½	22. 20	41. 58

These prices are for cast-iron round pots, enameled inside, with bail handles and bright tin covers. I may add that I believe a still more striking comparison could be made, as I have obtained another quotation for the German pot, f. o. b., Hamburg, packing free, which gives the cost for No. 4 as 1.35 marks, less 30 per cent, 6 per cent, and 2 per cent.

Wrought-iron enameled hollow ware has generally taken the place of the cast-iron enameled ware; it is also taking the place of the commoner class of earthenware. The German wrought-iron enameled ware has far outstripped the British, and now the United States manufacture is also competing. I forward some samples of both the German and United States makes, viz:

* * * German enameled teacup, 9 cm., and saucer, 15 cm., at \$4.50 per dozen.

* * * German enameled chamber, 22 cm., at \$13 per dozen.

* * * German enameled wash basin, 38 cm., at \$13 per dozen.

* * * German enameled ewer, 17 cm., at \$24 per dozen.

* * * German enameled flat plate, 22 cm., at \$3 per dozen.

* * * German enameled soup plate, 22 cm., at \$3 per dozen.

* * * German enameled ladle, 11 cm., at \$4.50 per dozen.

* * * German enameled fry pan, 22 cm., at \$9.50 per dozen.

* * * German enameled toilet pail, 26 cm., at \$3.50 each.

* * * German enameled mug 8, at \$3.75 per dozen.

* * * German enameled mug 10, at \$4.75 per dozen.

* * * German enameled teapot, 14 cm., at \$18 per dozen.

* * * German enameled stew pan, with tin cover, 14 cm., at \$8.50 per dozen.

* * * German enameled teakettle, 20 cm., at \$22.50 per dozen.

* * * German enameled teakettle, 18 cm., at \$26 per dozen.

* * * German enameled round pot, tin cover, 18 cm., at \$22 per dozen.

* * * German enameled dinner carrier, with heater, 16 cm., at \$4 each.

* * * American enameled teakettle, No. 60, at \$34 per dozen.

* * * American enameled stew pan and tin cover, 132, at \$11 per dozen.

* * * American enameled stew pan and tin cover, 04, at \$19 per dozen.

* * * American enameled mold 6, at \$7.50 per dozen.

The old Chile pot has been replaced by the wrought-iron kettle.

Locks of commoner sorts are mostly from the Continent. I send samples as follows, viz:

- * * * German iron chest lock, 2-inch depth, at \$1.75 per dozen.
- * * * German iron till lock, 1-inch depth, at \$1.25 per dozen.
- * * * German iron till lock, 1½-inch depth, at \$1.50 per dozen.
- * * * German iron till lock, 1½-inch depth, at \$1.75 per dozen.
- * * * German iron till lock, 2-inch depth, at \$2 per dozen.
- * * * German iron till lock, 2½-inch depth, at \$2.25 per dozen.
- * * * German iron till lock, 3-inch depth, at \$2.50 per dozen.
- * * * Padlock, No. 1005, at 1.70 marks per dozen, less 25 per cent,

packing extra, d/d works.

Cutlery.—The better qualities generally come from England and the poorer from the Continent. Taking the total figures, England is gaining in knives and forks, but losing in metal spoons. I forward samples, No. 58, of German tinned spoon costing 2.90 marks per gross, less 2 per cent, packing free, delivered at Hamburg. Duty on these has been doubled, viz, from 58 cents to \$1.17, making cost to sell net \$4 (17d. exchange) against former price \$3.30 to \$3.50 per gross.

* * * Spoon (No. 1295), at 26 marks per gross, less 15 per cent, packing free, delivered at port of shipment.

* * * Fork (No. 2295), at 26 marks per gross, less 15 per cent, packing free, delivered at port of shipment. Also the following, viz:

- * * * Card German penknives (484), at \$7.25 per card.
- * * * Card German pocketknives (C8597), at \$3 per card.
- * * * Card (1 dozen) German scissors (743), at \$2.75 per card.
- * * * Card (1 dozen) German barbers' scissors, at \$9 per card.
- * * * One pair German shears, American pattern, 11-inch, at \$18

per dozen.

- * * * One pair American cast shears, No. 3, at \$18 per gross.
- * * * One French cook's knife, 6-inch, at \$3.25 per dozen.
- * * * One French cook's knife, 10-inch, at \$7.50 per dozen.
- * * * Penknife (No. 1070), 1s. 4d. per dozen, less 2½ per cent, pack-

ing extra, d/d works.

Sheep shears.—There is a fair trade done in these, the better qualities coming from Sheffield, while the cheaper or common kind is of German make.

IMPLEMENTS AND TOOLS OF INDUSTRY.

Plows.—A small American plow, weighing 18 kilos and sold at \$8, has cut out the old "Concepcion" and "Valparaiso" hoes for vineyard work. I forward a sample of one * * * just as imported, with one spare point. Supplies of spare points are brought out for sale at 55 cents each point.

Shovels and spades come chiefly from England, but United States competition is keenly felt. I forward samples, as follows:

* * * American D handle, all polished, round point shovel, No. 4, at \$17 per dozen.

* * * American D handle, all polished, steel spade, at \$19 per dozen.

Adzes are less wanted than formerly, owing to the timber in the south being now wrought chiefly by circular saws, which come mostly from the United States. * * *

Chisels and screw-drivers of third quality are now coming from England to hold the market at low prices, but where woodwork bulks largely in any tool the United States seems to have an advantage. Joiners'

tools generally are less wanted in proportion than formerly, owing to doors and windows for houses being made by machinery.

I also send a sample set of American stocks and dies, * * * (maker's number, 44), at \$6.50 each.

Brush ware.—German brush ware is fast cutting out the English, American, and French in common and medium qualities, which have, of course, by far the larger sale. I send samples, as follows:

* * * A small German scrubbing brush (1820), used in the country for washing cloths, at \$2 per dozen.

* * * A German horse brush (13814), at \$7.50 per dozen.

* * * A German whisk dandy, at \$6.50 per dozen.

* * * German shoe brush (No. 7), at \$1.50 per dozen.

* * * Four German sash tools, four sizes, equally assorted, at \$1.40 per dozen.

* * * Four German paint brushes (French pattern), four sizes, equally assorted, at \$6.50 per dozen.

LEATHER.

The import of tanned hides from England has increased, while that from the Continent has fallen off. There are extensive tanneries in the country which tan all the native hides. Native hides are exported largely, almost exclusively to Germany, a large portion of the hides being of a coarse quality, destined chiefly, I am informed, for the Russian market.

The manufacture of boots and shoes is an extensive native industry. The work is largely done by farming out and a good deal is done in the jails. The import of boots and shoes has increased largely, and in a much larger proportion from England than from Germany, but now the increase in duty to more than double what it was on patent leather and to more than three times on ordinary leather is expected to very greatly curtail this trade.

Leather belting is now largely made in this country, but in spite of this fact, and the import duty now imposed (5 per cent), there is still a very considerable quantity of English make consumed, although the quality has had to be reduced in order to get the goods in at a price possible to obtain.

Saddlery and harness are also largely made in the country; in fact, beyond a comparatively small quantity of English saddles, hardly anything is imported. The native manufacture is now further protected by increased duties. Much of that manufacture is of a very common kind, but it serves the purpose and is cheap. The advent of the railway from Buenos Ayres to Mendoza killed this and other Chilean trade with the east side of the Cordillera.

Linen and jute manufactures.—The trade in these is very small; the largest lines composing it seem to be colored linen drills and sail cloth, of both of which England supplies the major portion.

MACHINERY.

Locomotives have been referred to under "Railway carriages and wagons." English steam engines for agricultural purposes hold the market. Some good gas engines come from Germany; they have not a preference over the English, but tend to keep the prices of the latter down.

The market for mining machinery is, like the industry itself, in a very depressed condition. German mining machinery is reported better liked than English, and has also the advantage of there being more

German mine managers than there used to be, but English winding engines hold their own.

Mining fuse, which was formerly exclusively of English manufacture, is now largely imported from Germany, being very much cheaper, while the quality is satisfactory.

In *agricultural machinery* the United States seems to have gained the ascendancy. Their threshing machines, for example, are reported lighter and quicker than English, and, although they do not separate so well and will not last as long, they sell far more readily on account of their cheapness.

Brewing machinery all comes from Germany, the breweries here being mostly in the hands of or worked by Germans.

METALS—IRON.

(a) *Old for remanufacture* is not imported; it is occasionally exported.

(b and c) *In pig, bar, angle, bolt, and rod* England still has the great bulk of the total trade, which is not divided in the statistics. The statistics show, however, that the Continental imports have made a very great advance, while the English have not. Cheaper freights from Antwerp and Hamburg tell in favor of the former. The Belgian iron is poorer than the Staffordshire, but it does well enough and will go where the c. i. f. cost is in its favor. United States pig has been coming to a small extent of late.

(d) *Railroad of all sorts*.—I refer to what I have written under the heading of "Railroad carriages and wagons."

Steel rails are not and never can be made in the country to compete with those from elsewhere. They are admitted free.

(e) *Wire*.—The trade seems to be falling away in English makes and increasing in Continental. United States wire is also coming.

The cheapest cost c. i. f. is the prime consideration, and freights helped the Continental makers, as will be apparent from the following rates ruling about the end of January last, as I am assured by importers, on this article, viz:

Steamer from Antwerp, 20 francs and 5 per cent, or 16s. 10d. per 1,000 kilos, say 18s. 6d. per ton.

Steamer from Liverpool, 22s. 6d. and 5 per cent, or 23s. 7½d. per ton.

Sailer from Hamburg, 8s. per ton; no primage.

Sailer from Liverpool, 15s. and 10 per cent, or 16s. 6d. per ton.

United States barbed wire is liked.

England holds the market in wire rope for mining purposes, but wove wire, formerly exclusively of British make, is now obtained from Germany at lower prices and better finish. I forward a sample * * * and append a few figures of present cost of German iron wove wire, japanned, f. o. b. Hamburg, packed in crates and put up in rolls of 50 yards by 2 feet wide, viz:

Size of mesh.	Price per square meter.
	<i>Marks.</i>
1 to 12	1. 11
14 to 16	1. 12
18	1. 23
20	1. 31
24	1. 54

Plus one-half mark per crate for packing.

Last sailer freight, 11s. per ton of 40 feet in full.

Last steamer freight, 30 marks per cubic measurement¹ and 5 per cent. In galvanized wire netting England is paramount.

(f) *Hoops, sheets, and (i) boiler plates.*—Continental hoop iron seems to have increased largely in favor, so that it is nearly on a par with English in respect of quantity dispatched.

Galvanized corrugated sheets come almost exclusively from England. Galvanized iron is reported to be taking the place of sheet zinc for structural purposes, such as guttering, down pipes, cornices, etc. Boiler plates come chiefly from England, but a fair quantity is now coming from Belgium and is likely to increase owing to lower freight, etc., also some have lately come in from the United States.

(g) *Tinned plates.*—The trade is a small one, but almost all in the English article, although a little has come from the United States.

There are several fruit-canning enterprises in the country, some of which make their own cans, but there are also two small can factories. The machinery used, I am informed, is adequate and up to date. The lobster (really crayfish) fishery at the island of Juan Fernandez cans its product; the management complains of being unable as yet to find anything which really prevents alkali, in which the fish is very rich, from attacking the cans. I forward * * * a couple of cans. The native market takes all this canned fish.

(h) *Cast or wrought and all other iron and steel manufactures.*—I have already referred to several well-appointed local foundries and machine shops which supply a certain portion of the demand, but the protection is insufficient in a country of small population, and where other imports are highly protected, ever to admit of imports ceasing to be relied on, generally speaking, for supplying the great bulk of it.

Iron pipes come chiefly from England. The trade in cast-iron pipes for mains is mostly a matter of contract, but wrought-iron pipes up to 2½ inches for gas, and galvanized iron pipes up to same size for water, are largely dealt in.

Anchors and chains are practically all English.

Nails, screws, and rivets.—In cut iron nails the United States manufactures seems to have most acceptance, the nails are considered better proportioned, less likely to turn over or split the wood in driving. The nails are imported in neat little kegs, which form much more handy and attractive packages than the big iron drums in which English nails come.

Wrought iron "deck" nails come largely from Germany. The English are considered too thin for ship repair work, for which deck nails are chiefly wanted here. Common English deck nails are used for building purposes. I send samples * * * of Belgian bright horseshoe nails, which sell at about \$25.50 per keg of 100 pounds. This nail is fast pushing all others out of the market, being cheap and showy.

Tacks of American make prevail, and German G. C. nails are suitable. I forward a small packet * * * containing 500 of the latter, which sell at 60 cents a packet.

Of wire nails the consumption is large, the supplies coming exclusively from Germany. I forward sample card * * * and append a note of present cost of German wire nails f. o. b. Hamburg, packed in cases of 45 kilos net and in packets of 2½ kilos.

¹ So in original—*gy.* per ton?

Size.	No.	Price per cwt.	Size.	No.	Price per cwt.
Inches.		s. d.	Inches.		s. d.
$\frac{1}{2}$	10	15 6	2	17	7 9
$\frac{3}{4}$	11	14 6	$2\frac{1}{4}$	18	6 9
1	12	12 9	3	19	6 0
$1\frac{1}{4}$	13	11 3	4	21	5 6
$1\frac{1}{2}$	14	10 6	5	22	5 6
$1\frac{3}{4}$	16	9 0	6	23	5 6

Last sailer freight, 8s. per ton in full.

Last steamer freight, 20 francs, plus 5 per cent primage, per ton.

Screws.—England practically holds the market in screws, but I send a sample (a quarter of a gross) * * * of American coach screws, square headed, 2 inches by three-eighths, which sell at \$4 a gross. This make is pretty certain to oust the English article, being cheaper.

I also forward a sample containing one-quarter of a gross * * * of American bolts and nuts, 3 inches by three-eighths, which sell at \$6 per gross.

Iron bedsteads of English make hold the market, but the duty is now so heavy, viz, something like 10s. 6d. on a bedstead costing 12s. 6d., that imports are likely to fall away; moreover, the demand is reported to be now running upon a native-made bedstead instead of upon the imported one.

Spring wire mattresses, generally of English make, are being, to a large extent, superseded by the country-made article.

Iron buckets come principally from England.

Cast-iron boilers, which were formerly imported from Great Britain in considerable quantities, are no longer used, the boiling of fat being now done by steam in the municipal slaughterhouse.

Wrought-iron hinges.—England was until lately the supplier of these goods, but the American-made article has entirely superseded the English one. I forward sample, * * * 1 dozen pairs American bright iron hinges, 2 inches, which sell at 65 cents per dozen pairs. These will show the very superior make and finish (for a cheap article), and the especially neat manner in which they are put up.

METALS—COPPER AND BRASS.

COPPER. (a) *Uncroutght* is one of the exports of Chili.

(b) *Wrought copper ware, sheets or tubes*.—England practically holds the trade in these.

BRASS OF ALL SORTS. *Kettles*.—I send a sample of a German brass kettle, * * * for spirit lamp (maker's number of kettle, No. 28), at \$4.25 each. These flat brass kettles are to a great extent replacing the English kettle, while the spirit lamps (for making the kettles boil) replace the old brazier for burning charcoal. These spirit lamps or stoves are entirely of continental manufacture, but it is hard to see why such articles should not be made in England. The sale is large.

Hinges.—Brass hinges are almost entirely of German origin, as, taking make and finish into account, they are much cheaper than English. I forward a sample * * * of 1 dozen pairs of German brass hinges, $1\frac{1}{4}$ inches, which sell at \$1 per dozen pairs.

Brass bedsteads are almost all English.

OILS.

Linseed oil comes chiefly from England (i. e., more thence than from elsewhere), but is also made in the country, at a factory here, as well as at some of the flour mills. Hitherto it has been made from native seed, but some seed is now being imported.

Vegetable oil, the German and United States imports have increased as the English has fallen off, the quantity of the latter dispatched in 1896 being less than those of either of the former.

Cocoanut oil.—There is a factory for making cocoanut oil, the copra for which is imported direct from Hawaii.

Painters' colors and materials.—These come chiefly from England, except turpentine, which is received from the United States. I am informed that the custom in selling paints is to sell 4 tins which are supposed to contain in all 100 pounds of paint, or, say, 25 pounds each, but the continental tins frequently contain only about 20 pounds apiece.

Soap.—Soap is made to a considerable extent in the country. The importation had increased, and in greater proportions from England than from the Continent or the United States, the former coming second in scented kinds, and the latter in common kinds; but the heavy increase of duty, about 30 per cent on common and much more on scented soap, will tend to minimize imports henceforth.

Spirits.—England has the largest share in the trade in imported spirits, which, however, will now be curtailed in favor of the native article, owing to very heavy increase of duties.

Sugar.—There is a large importation of refined sugar from Germany, and of raw sugar for the two native refineries from Peru, and also from Australia. The native manufacture will no doubt flourish under the new tariff more than it has done, in fact, the increased duty on imported sugar is so heavy as to lead some to expect imports to fall, in time, to a very small figure.

Umbrellas and parasols.—The trade is a small one; England has the largest share of it.

Earthen and china ware.—Continental ware now prevails, and seems to be ousting the English in many lines. I forward some samples of German manufacture, each representing an article of large consumption by itself, as follows:

	Marks.
White plate	each.. 0.08
Bowl.....	do... .18
Mug.....	do... .20
Teacup, sold without saucer	do... .21
Less 10 per cent f. o. b. German port, with packing extra.	

I hope to send further samples later. The lightness of these articles will be noticed; this tells in first cost and duty. English manufacture is reported to be preferred, as a rule, in toilet ware. Earthenware (stone) bottles and jars do not seem to be used, glass being preferred.

Cordage and twine.—The local manufacture made from native hemp, similar to Russian, but said to be better, is protected, and supplies the market in great measure; in tarred rope, it does so almost entirely. I forward samples of latter, as follows, viz:

	Per 100 pounds.
Ratline	\$27.00
Bolt rope	26.00
Hemp tar rope	25.00
Do	25.00
Do	25.00

I am also taking steps to procure complete samples of other makes of native rope and twine, including what is used for making girths (the import of which seems to be a thing of the past), for sewing up the nitrate bags, engine packing, etc. A certain amount is imported, mostly from England, but increasingly from the Continent, and in the case of rope only, from the United States.

Hats.—The trade in straw hats of all kinds from Europe seems nearly divided between English and continental goods, but in soft woolen felt hats the latter prevail, and to a greater extent than formerly. I forward samples as follows:

* * * An Austrian hat costing 20.75 francs per dozen, less 2 per cent discount, placed in Hamburg, boxes and packing free.

* * * An Austrian hat costing 22.50 francs per dozen, less 2 per cent discount, placed in Hamburg, boxes and packing free.

* * * An Italian hat costing 17.35 lire per dozen, less 3 per cent and 1 per cent discount, placed in Genoa, boxes and packing all free.

I further forward, as they may be of interest, the following samples, viz:

* * * One box, 100 French cue tips, assorted 14 to 15, at \$1.25 per box, an article for which there is a fair sale.

* * * One French wood meter and inches, 10 fold, 15 mm. wide, at \$1.60 per dozen, which is also a very suitable article.

Before coming to the general causes affecting the diminished demand for British articles—that is, the reasons why these have been in many instances displaced to a greater or less extent by foreign goods, and the consideration of the question how the demand for them might be created or increased—it will be well in the first place to review the general form in which the import trade in Chile is conducted. The great bulk of it is not carried on directly between European manufacturers and dealers here; it is carried on by merchants established here who have their own houses or agencies in Europe. The business done by direct sale on account of European producers to dealers in Valparaiso, as indicated by the figures of drafts for collection in Valparaiso which I have been able to obtain from four of the leading banks for three months, and after estimating for similar business through other channels, would appear to be something like £250,000 per annum. Taking, say, £150,000 for drafts against goods for other places sent through Valparaiso, we have £400,000, and adding as much more for similar business done without drafts (that is, by buyers who are allowed to remit as soon as they can), the total will be only about £800,000, or, say, less than one-ninth of what the customs figures for 1896 show as the total value of goods cleared from bond at this port. It would be impossible to obtain anything approaching exact figures in such a matter as this; still, those I have given may serve as an indication.

The business is mostly done, as I have said, by the European houses or the agents in Europe of merchants here, buying under the instructions of the latter; purchases are naturally made where what is wanted can be obtained at the lowest price and with the least trouble; English buy German goods, and Germans buy English goods when it suits them, although doubtless each give the goods of their own country the preference if they can, so that, as a matter of fact, English sell chiefly English goods and Germans chiefly German.

I have only met with two commercial travelers since I have been here; both were English, possessing a thorough knowledge of the

language of the country, and I should say very capable for their work, and both represented a large number of home makers of widely different articles, largely specialties, e. g., whisky, perfumery, tea, ink, brushes, drugs, etc. They told me they meet more German travelers than English; probably, however, not a few of these represent English houses. This form of business—that is, direct business—whether done through the agency of a traveler or not, is usually done c. i. f. in European currency to avoid risk of exchange; drafts are drawn at such usance as may be arranged, or buyers are allowed to remit.

Proceeding now to the causes themselves, I am compelled at the outset to voice the general complaint which is borne in upon one of the great difficulty often experienced in inducing English manufacturers—

(a) To take up a new pattern or design on a small order.

(b) To make qualities very much lower than they have been accustomed to.

(c) To make a low quality with a finish and get-up such as they might think only belonged to a higher class.

(d) To send samples prepared in a sufficiently attractive form.

(e) Generally to attend to minutiae which might appear to them unimportant, but which may be very important as affecting the sale of goods here.

Causes which are apparent here are:

(1) *Cheaper freights from foreign countries.*—These undoubtedly exist, at least on bulky goods, from Hamburg and Antwerp, and I have instanced some cases. I have already referred to the effects of the bounty given to French ships, and I now hear that the Compagnie Chargeurs Réunis are building three large steamers in France for the west coast trade. A word or two in regard to the very fine German vessels from Hamburg (see German advertisement herewith)¹ may not be out of place. These vessels are apparently worked entirely by their owner and in his interests. The outward cargo consists chiefly of bulky and light goods. It is taken at very cheap rates of freight, but it is made a condition that consignees take their goods practically at once. The ships go alongside the custom-house mole like steamers, and are discharged in about a week. As they make very fast passages and sail from Hamburg at regular intervals, they are a favorite mode of conveyance for the class of goods mentioned.

(2) *Custom-house duties.*—There is no interpreting the law which taxes “with varying degrees of severity particular classes of goods produced by the several countries,” but there have been some remarkable exposés made, through the vigilance of the custom-house officials, of fraudulent entry of goods by certain foreign houses here, which indicate the possibility of such entry being not quite so uncommon as the Government do their best to make it. The extraordinarily low prices at which from time to time newly arrived goods are sold (not by English importers) are difficult to account for on any other hypothesis.

(3) *False marking.*—Trade-marks are not adequately protected in Chile; only an absolutely exact copy forms a sufficient ground for action. I inclose a well-known label (marked with a cross on the back) of port wine, shipped to this coast from England, with four several imitations of it the names on which are imaginary. I am also obtaining some imitation labels of other articles. False indications of number, size, etc., exist in certain articles of foreign manufacture, but I have not heard of any which specially prejudice British manufactures.

¹ See Appendix No. 3, p. 44.

(4) *Metric system.*—The adoption of this in its entirety would greatly assist British trade. Dealers in certain goods are, it is true, accustomed to the English length measures, but English weights are always very troublesome.

(5) *Finance.*—I am credibly informed that much greater facilities are obtainable from German bankers by men with some experience of business in this country, but very little capital, than from English. Business done by men obtaining these facilities is naturally carried on with the maximum endeavor to push trade and a minimum of care as to the ultimate result, and must have the effect at times of forcing into the market manufactures for which the more conservative methods of merchants with large capital, and who have for years conducted a successful and careful business, would fail to find an opening.

I have not found anyone who has heard much or anything of the Stuttgart Exhibition of Export Goods or of the Philadelphia Museum. The advance in the import of American goods, shown in the early part of this letter, is remarkable, and I think it may be taken for granted that wherever any American goods can be pushed in no considerations of possible loss in the attempt will prevent their being given a full trial.

I do not think that there is any special laxity on the part of our competitors generally as to the terms of payment allowed, but many of them, for reasons indicated above, are doubtless rash in the amounts they give to weak buyers.

The information already given, the samples sent, and the considerations submitted, of themselves indicate, to a certain extent, "in what directions and under what conditions a demand for British goods might be created or increased."

It is not for me to comment upon the complaint made by merchants as to the difficulty at times of obtaining what they want from British manufacturers, but I may be permitted to submit the following remarks for reflection:

The Chilean was accustomed, years ago, to buy his European goods with what was to him the same dollar as it is now. He wants the same piece of cloth or the same saucepan for a dollar, but the dollar is only 1s. 6d. instead of, say, 3s., therefore the piece of cloth or the saucepan must be made proportionately cheaper—quality must go. As a leading banker said to me here the other day, "Chile is a poor country, and the poor country will always buy the cheapest goods." Cheapness is the first consideration; there is no use to tell a man, "This piece of cloth or that saucepan is a little dearer than that other piece or that other saucepan, but it will last double the time;" he only has the money to buy the cheap one, and the cheap one he will have. This applies all through, even to higher-class articles, and the buyer of a piece of cheap fancy goods consoles himself with the idea that the better and more expensive piece would be out of fashion before the cheap one is worn out; while the buyer of a cheap light thrashing machine, for example, thinks that by the time it wears out something better may be invented which will render the high-priced, long-lasting article obsolete. Cheapness is the first desideratum; it is better, in competing, to bring an article at a rather less price and of lower quality than the one competed with than an article of distinctly better quality but at a fractionally higher price, provided always that care is taken that the finish and get-up are made thoroughly attractive. The remark was made to me recently that the "Germans make a common article

look well, while Englishmen make a common article and it looks common."

Cheaper freight is a matter which can only be dealt with at home, where the reasons why German steamers are able to take lower freights than our own are better understood and can be more easily investigated.

Custom-house frauds will, doubtless, exist more or less here as elsewhere till the end of the chapter, but the Government is always glad of the assistance of merchants to detect and prevent them.

Trade-marks.—It is worth consideration whether something could not be done through diplomatic channels to bring about an improvement in the law on this subject, but the matter is one involving a good deal of difficulty.

It may seem to some manufacturers on reading this letter that the general form in which the great bulk of the import trade in Chile is conducted, viz, through the intervention of the merchants and shipping houses, is not the best in the manufacturer's interests. However this may be, it is the method in existence, and the growth of years. The direct method could possibly be extended somewhat by more of the right sort of travelers and by special care in the selection of buyers. It must be borne in mind that a great many buyers are not accustomed to drafts being drawn on them; they do not like having to accept them before they see the goods, nor do they like having no one on the spot to whom they can apply if they have any reclamation to make in respect of the goods. As a matter of experience, so troublesome has a large amount of business done in this form proved that one of the principal banks here, as the manager informed me, has raised its rate of commission upon the collections, and declined to undertake them at all unless an agent were appointed to whom the bank could apply to take charge of the goods in the event of difficulty.

* * * * *

I am, etc.,

THOS. WORTHINGTON, *Commissioner.*

SECOND REPORT.

CHILE—Continued.

CONCEPCION, *May 24, 1898.*

SIR: I wrote you from Valparaiso on the 14th ultimo. I have since visited Iquique, the principal northern port of Chile; Santiago, the capital of the country, and this, the principal southern port, spending a week to ten days in each. I leave to-morrow for Buenos Ayres, and with this letter close the report of my inquiry as regards Chile.

IQUIQUE.

The conditions of trade here, and in all the northern ports of Chile, are exceptional. The country behind them is practically a desert, and the ports exist solely for the supply of necessaries to the nitrate works (in the three northern provinces), mines, and smelting works. The major portion of the capital in the nitrate works is European, chiefly British. The truck system is in vogue at all these works, whether Chilean or European, and the supplies for the latter have hitherto been almost all imported. There are no large wholesale importers, except of ironwork, machinery, and its accessories, but some of the substantial general stores in the town import themselves, besides buying in Valparaiso. In selling to the nitrate works, etc., the terms are cash on the 10th of the month following. The prices given here are either cost of import or price in Valparaiso, under the conditions named in my previous letter.

Bags and coal naturally form a very large portion of the imports into Iquique and the other northern ports, but I have nothing to add to what I have previously written with regard to these.

Railway carriages and wagons.—The railways from the ports to the nitrate grounds and mines in the north are mostly the properties of European companies, who import their own rolling stock.

Soft goods of all kinds for clothing, as indicated above, and as shown by the official statistics, are imported to a comparatively very trifling extent. I forward a few samples of goods which sell in this market to the exclusion of, or in preference to, similar goods made in England, viz:

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

(a) *Piece goods printed, checked, or dyed.* * * * American cotton flannel, 72 centimeters wide, assorted.

* * * Four pieces * * * used for making drawers for nitrate workers, bought in Valparaiso at 27 cents per yard.

* * * * *
Woolen and worsted manufactures—A higher grade of these goods is sold in this district more freely in comparison than in the south, as the

and 5 per cent, which makes it little more than half the first cost of the English.¹

Brass of all sorts.—Engine fittings, such as globe, horizontal, and check valves, radiator valves, gas, steam, and service cocks, steam whistles, water gauges, gauge cocks, air cocks, oil cups, lubricators, glass-body oil cups, safety valves, I am informed, all come 25 per cent cheaper from the United States than from England.

SANTIAGO.

This place is the destination or distributing point of a large proportion of the merchandise sold in Valparaiso, and many of the merchants of the latter place have branch establishments or agencies here. There are also not a few large retail establishments which import themselves. Terms of payment in the wholesale trade are the same as in Valparaiso.

Under this heading I include additional matter gleaned in Valparaiso.

Apparel and haberdashery.—The importation of ready-made clothing will fall off under the new tariff. Large quantities are made up in the country for the wholesale trade, e. g., shirts of Osnaburgs or common colored flannelettes for the nitrate workers and drawers of cotton drill. Woven drawers are very little used.

German needles and pins are chiefly used. The former come in tin boxes, which used to be supposed to contain 10,000 needles, but which really contain 400 papers of 20 needles each. I forward a sample packet, No. 315A long needles, No. 315B short needles, and No. 315C at the top of tin box containing similar goods, a shipment of these assorted:

Numbers.....	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Packets.....	30	40	80	80	80	50	40

and in proportion of 40 boxes long to 20 short, cost 4.90 marks per box, selling price here 90 cents per 40 papers, equal to \$7 per box.

The pins come in packets containing 10 papers of 100 each (in 2 bundles of 5 papers each), or 1,000 pins. Five hundred of such packets are put in a case. I forward 2 sample packets, as follows, viz:

No. 316. "Ne-plus-ultra Pins," sold at 30 cents per packet.

No. 317. "The Queen's Ne-plus-ultra Pins," sold at 32 cents per packet.

Hooks and eyes also come largely from Germany. They come 2 dozen on a card, put up in packets containing 72 cards or 12 gross, assorted Nos. 7, 8, and 9, 4 gross of each number in a packet. I inclose samples as follows, viz:

No. 318A. A paper of gold colored, sold at \$1.95 per 12 gross.

No. 318B. A paper of black colored, sold at \$1.60 per 12 gross.

No. 318C. Three papers (to show numbers), white, sold at \$1.65 per 12 gross. The best assortment is 40 gold colored, 35 black, and 25 white.

Arms and ammunition.—As implied in my last, shot is mostly made in the country now. The favorite mark is "Walker, Clar & Co." (note the omission of "k" in "Clark"), size and weight being stamped in English and with the English arms on the sacks (25 pounds each).

¹ In a statement made by Mr. Worthington on March 22, 1899, the figures in this paragraph were changed as follows: "It has been pointed out by certain British manufacturers that the discounts on screws quoted to the commissioner by merchants in Iquique were, as a matter of fact, incorrect, and instead of being 62½ per cent and 5 per cent, they were at the time 80 per cent and 5 per cent, making the net cost only some 3 per cent more than that of the German article."

Candles.—I have seen very good tallow candles made here in molds (not dips), which are reported to sell at \$30 per quintal, less 20 per cent discount.

Cement.—There is a native Portland cement enterprise at a place called Calera, on the railway between this place and Valparaiso. It has not been a success hitherto, but I am assured the elements are there to make it so, and that money is being made in a small way by a farmer who owns property containing the same material as that of the larger works.

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

(a) *White or plain piece goods.*—I forward samples (the best I could obtain), of American bleached wigans ("Creas"), which are in favor here, namely:

A. 8, which sells in 10-case lots at 26 cents per yard, and A. 9, which sells in 10-case lots at 27 cents per yard; also a sample * * * of American twilled sheetings, assorted, 3 pieces of 2 yards wide, 3 of 2½, 2 of 2½, 2 of 2¾, sold at 85 cents per yard, which sell readily, and one * * * of German quilt stuff, sold at 85 cents per meter. The good raising on the back of this sample, an important point in these goods, should be noted.

(b) *Printed, checked, or dyed piece goods.*—I send further samples of trouserings as follows, viz:

B. 15, German cords, about 60 centimeters wide, sold at 72 cents per meter. Each case contains two small trusses, each comprising a complete assortment. Frequently there is but one assortment; in this instance there are two, one in one truss and one in the other; only the sample of one truss was available, but the other was similar. These goods cost 0.82 franc per meter, less 2 per cent and 2 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

B. 16, German cords, packed as above, each truss containing one assortment complete, sold at 60 cents per meter.

B. 17, German trouserings, 120 centimeters wide, packed as before, sold at 68 cents per meter.

B. 18, German trouserings, 120 centimeters wide, packed as before, costing 0.95 marks per meter, or about 95 cents, importers (retailers) say, to sell here. This quality of trousering has a larger sale than the lower. The lower the quality the more important to have good raising on the back.

It is to be noted that in all the above samples the edges are turned in, an important detail, and in B. 16 one full width sample with mark, which is also very desirable.

(c) *Hosiery (undershirts).*—Cotton are not separated from woolen and mixed in the statistics, and these show in the total a greater advance in German than English trade. I forward a sample * * * of a German undershirt having a good sale, costing in Germany 6½ marks per dozen, less 4 per cent and 2 per cent discount; these undershirts come assorted in several shades of pink, gray, and brown. I also send a sample * * * of an Italian undershirt, costing 8.40 liras per dozen, packing included, at port of shipment; also one * * * of a Spanish undershirt, costing 8s. per dozen packed f. o. b. at Barcelona.

(d) *Lace and patent net.*—I inclose two samples of a class of goods in which German and Swiss manufactures prevail * * *. These goods are of Swiss manufacture, packed in cardboard boxes of 30 pieces, assorted as per samples, and sold at 17 cents per meter.

Woolen and worsted yarn.—Referring to what I wrote in my last report *re* embroidery wools from Germany, I forward two samples * * * of embroidery wool, selling at 48 to 50 cents per packet of 80 grams. The larger sample is for the case which contains 12 packets of 25 bundles each, each bundle assorted as marked on the samples, while the smaller sample is for the bundle, and such a sample comes for each bundle. Duty is on weight (with paper covering), 25.40 kilos per case as above, at 26 per cent on a valuation of \$5 per kilo, or about 11 cents a bundle.

Two-thread wool for weaving into “ponchos” and “mantos” (the short “ponchos”) is of much larger sale than the four-thread; both come made up in identical fashion.

Woolen and worsted manufactures.—Of common woolen and worsted (and mixed) cloths for men’s clothing (“cassimeres”), I forward the following samples, viz:

D. 6. German trouserings, 15 patterns, equally assorted, 132 centimeters wide, packed in pieces of 117 centimeters long, 25 pieces in a packet, and 4 such packets in each case. These pieces (“cortes”), sufficient to make a pair of trousers, were sold at \$4 per piece.

D. 7. German trouserings, 25 patterns, equally assorted, packed as above, and sold at \$4.20 per piece.

In these “corte” goods the small samples suffice, but one full-width sample is very desirable. In the full-piece goods, such as those to which reference here follows, the small samples would not do.

D. 8. German goods, 8 patterns, equally assorted, packed in trusses of 4 pieces each; 2 of these trusses, each containing the same assortment, go in each case. These goods were bought at 2.80 marks per meter, packed at port of shipment.

D. 9. German goods, 5 patterns (as per cuttings), equally assorted, packed in trusses as above, each containing the full assortment of 5 pieces, and 2 of these trusses in a case, sold at \$3.25 per meter.

D. 10. German goods, 4 patterns (as per cuttings), equally assorted and packed like the foregoing, each truss containing the full assortment of four pieces, sold at \$3.30 per meter.

I had a piece of these goods weighed; it weighed 13½ pounds with paper, length 18.10 meters.

D. 11. A piece of cloth made at the “Fábrica Nacional de Tejidos” here, and sold at \$5 per meter. It is similar to the military cloth made for officers, I understand.

D. 12. A sample of the military cloth made at the same factory for soldiers, and paid for by the Government at \$4.50 per meter. This cloth weighs about 800 grams per meter.

Woolen and worsted dress goods.—Of woolen (and mixed) plain dress goods for women I forward a sample * * * of German blue serge, 94 centimeters wide, assorted 6 pieces light and 4 pieces dark, packed in 5 trusses of 10 pieces (assorted as stated) to each case, sold at \$1 per meter; also one * * * of German nun’s veiling, 148 to 150 centimeters wide, packed in trusses of 6 pieces and 2 trusses to a case, sold at 95 cents per meter.

Importers say that neither of the above class of goods need be packed in trusses.

Blankets of quality above the very cheapest are preferred of German make for their softer finish. I send a German blanket * * *, one of an assortment, 20 blankets blue stripe, 25 red (“lacre”), and 5 yellow (which should be rose, yellow not being liked) to the bale, sold at \$4.60 per blanket for 140 by 190 centimeters size, and at \$5.25 to 160 by 210 centimeters size.

Leather, wrought—Boots and shoes.—Referring to what I wrote in my last, I am assured by a large dealer and manufacturer that the only size it is now possible to import is infants', not over 15 centimeters long. I forward a sample * * * of infants' shoes made in Switzerland, Nos. 17 to 21 assorted, costing 1.90 francs per pair at the factory, less 10 per cent and 2 per cent discount, and packing extra, which are liked.

Soap.—Referring to what I wrote in my last, I inclose samples of native-made soap (one factory of which turns out 25,000 quintals annually) as follows, viz:

* * * A box (with two pieces inside) "Daltoh's Benzoe Soap." This soap sells at \$2.10 per box of one dozen pieces. (Note the substitution of "h" for "n.")

* * * A slab of marble soap; sells at \$2.40 per dozen slabs.

* * * A packet marked "Real Brown Windsor, manufactured by improved by Ed. Penaud;" sells at 80 cents per dozen pieces.

* * * A piece stamped "Only genuine superior universal toilet soap;" sells at \$1.80 per dozen pieces.

* * * A piece stamped "Brown Windsor Soap;" sells at 40 cents per dozen pieces.

Prices would, no doubt, be subject to discount for quantity. Common mottled native-made soap is sold at \$16 per quintal, and yellow at \$14, less 20 per cent discount.

Sugar.—The consumption of the country is estimated at 30,000 tons per annum of white sugar, almost the only kind used; and this estimate I gather to be rather a low one. The two native factories are already making something like the figure named, and by the end of next year it is expected they will cover the whole requirements of the trade. Raw sugar is imported from Java usually when Peru prices are too high.

Earthen and china ware.—I forward further samples of articles of Continental manufacture and ready sale, as follows, viz:

* * * German soup plate, bought at 0.90 marks per dozen, less 5 per cent, f. o. b. Hamburg.

* * * French soup plate, bought at 0.95 francs per dozen, less 3 per cent, f. o. b. Antwerp.

* * * German cup and saucer, bought at 2.50 marks per dozen, less 5 per cent, f. o. b. Hamburg. Notice the one pattern only, and on the side toward the drinker.

* * * German cup and saucer of English pattern, bought at 3.25 marks per dozen, less 5 per cent, f. o. b. Hamburg.

Paper (other than hangings).—This is mostly a German trade, and England has a less share than formerly. The United States have come up with printing paper, and Italy, to some extent, with common wrapping paper, but the native factories take a large share of the business in latter. I inclose samples.

* * * American printing paper, 30½ by 43 inches, sold at \$4 per ream of 500 sheets, weighing about 20 kilos, which, I am informed, is used by two leading newspapers. There is a similar paper, 43 by 60 inches, which sells at \$8.75 per ream of 500 sheets, weighing 46 kilos.

* * * "Quillota," * * * "buin," native-made wrapping paper, put up in bales of 20 reams each, weighing more or less 1 quintal each, sold in 500-bale lots at \$10.75 per bale.

Further I send the following samples, viz:

* * * German colored paper, also used for wrapping, eight colors, as per cuttings, equally assorted, packed in bales of 20 reams, weighing gross 72 kilos each (tare probably 5 pounds), sold at 80 cents per ream in 10-bale lots.

* * * A packet of German note paper, containing 75 sheets, packed four in a cardboard box, which the importer (a retailer) assured me cost him 60 cents a box to sell.

* * * A packet of Belgian note paper, containing 75 sheets, packed four in a cardboard box, which the importer assured me cost him to sell 85 cents per box.

* * * A packet of German envelopes, containing 100, costing 2.60 francs per thousand (cardboard box of 10 packets).

Packing in small boxes of 4 packets, each 25 envelopes, would probably give better result.

* * * A box of German pens, containing 8 dozen (supposed to be 100); 25 of these boxes come in a package, and as many of these packages as may be deemed safe are put up in the packing case. These are sold at 45 cents per box. The shopkeeper who bought them told me he sold 200 boxes of these pens a month, and numbers of others do the same. They are an imitation of Hink & Wells's pens, I understand.

Cordage and twine.—Referring to my last, I now forward a sample board of native cordage and twine, and append list of prices (cash at factory, San Felipe, on the railway) as follows, viz:

No.	Description.	Price per quintal.	No.	Description.	Price per quintal.
1	Cordage	\$23	11	"Piollilla"	\$26
2	do	23	12	Twine for making girths	50
3	do	23	13	"Hilo carta"	28
4	do	23	14	"Lazo"	38
5	Rope	26	15	do	38
6	do	26	16	"Lazo," colored	43
7	do	28	17	do	43
8	do	28	18	Seaming twine	α 54 to 58
9	do	28	19	do	α 48
10	Packing	26			

α Loss 6 per cent.

In Iquique I found that the Dundee seaming twine apparently holds its own both against other imported and against native.

Hats.—Straw hats are made largely in the country from imported straw braid. Soft felt hats are imported in the rough and blocked here.

Machinery, etc.—I append a list of articles which can be made, and are made, more or less, in the country, with an indication of the duty on each, if imported (I say "indication of the duty;" the tariff must be consulted for the valuation or method of arriving at same), on which duty is chargeable:

Articles.	Duty.	Articles.	Duty.
	<i>Per cent.</i>		<i>Per cent.</i>
Mining cars	5	Cooking stoves	15
Riveted steel water tubing	5	Freight wagons of all descriptions	25
Crossings and switches	5	Tramway cars of all descriptions	25
Special pipe castings	5	Engineers' hand cars	25
Water valves up to 30 inches	5	Buoys	35
Passenger coaches, first, second, and third class, 8-wheeled	5	Tanks of all descriptions	35 to 60
Boilers (locomotive, Cornish, Lancashire, vertical, and marine)	15	Bolling tanks	35 to 60
Bridges (vertical, and marine)	15	Carts of all descriptions	60
Iron roofs	15	Dogcarts	60
Girders	15	Wheelbarrows	60
		Cast-iron balconies	60
		Garden seats	60

The following are free, viz:

Turntables, signal posts, water columns, pumps (iron and steel steam pumps for mining and agricultural work, hydraulic rams, and centrifugal pumps), shafting, pulleys of steel and cast iron, bearings, columns of wrought and cast iron, steam cranes, pile drivers, furnaces of all descriptions, copper converters, blowers (Root's system), Lührig vanners, American pans, horse gear, water wheels, pelton wheels, winding drums with gear, stamp batteries, water towers, spare pieces for plows, plows complete, mining buckets for ore and water, bending rolls, dough machines, grinding mills, hand wharf cranes up to 15 tons, hand winches, castings of every description up to 15 tons.

Improved machinery and tools seem to be pushed by our competitors more than by ourselves. Travelers or salesmen who are expert and up-to-date machinists, as well as otherwise qualified, are naturally necessary. The able manager of the sugar refinery near Valparaiso gave me an exemplification of how business in this line may be lost, and doubtless is lost, for want of a personal canvass by an expert. When recently about to put in a new plant for revivifying animal charcoal, the order would have gone to Germany, where makers keep in touch with requirements out here, had it not been that a mechanical engineer, representative of an English house, at the time traveling in the Argentine, was heard of and sent for, with result that he booked an £8,000 order. The manager referred to had never before had a visit from a representative of English machinists.

The usual superior quality of English articles of regular sale, whether machinery, tools, or iron, as a large importer remarked to me, is admitted, but only to be traded upon, and of the very large number of articles sold as English, comparatively few really are English.

CONCEPCION.

The conditions of trade here resemble those obtaining in Valparaiso rather than those in Iquique. This place, and the neighboring port, Talcahuano, form the chief outlet of a large wheat district. Terms of payment are more strictly enforced here in one way than in Valparaiso; that is to say, the payment in 60 days, less 6 per cent, which has become practically payment in three months in Valparaiso, is insisted upon here, and even 30 days is sometimes made the term; but, on the other hand, owing to the majority of buyers finding the harvest the time they are best in funds, promissory notes for six months from the end of the 60 days are taken from first-class people.

Cordage and twine.—Sisal cordage, made in England and also the United States, appears to sell, and it has been stated to me that the native cordage does not stand the wet so well.

Soft goods.—The market seems to be very much a small edition of Valparaiso and Santiago. It may be remarked, however, that the colors in prints and trouserings are generally darker.

Cotton trouserings of fair quality have a much larger sale than mixed woolen and worsted goods. I forward a few samples in cotton manufactures, of trouserings (German manufacture) 120 centimeters wide, as follows, viz:

	Per meter.
B. 20, packed as heretofore described.....	\$1. 12
B. 21, packed as heretofore described.....	1. 25

And in woolen and worsted goods, 140 centimeters wide, of cloth made in the factory at the neighboring port of Tomé:

	Per meter.
D. 16, a bundle of cuttings, price of any.....	\$2. 70
D. 17, a cutting, price.....	3. 50
D. 18, a bundle of cuttings, price of any.....	3. 70
D. 19, a bundle of cuttings, price of any.....	3. 75
D. 20, a bundle of cuttings, price of any.....	4. 00
D. 21, a bundle of cuttings, price of any.....	4. 50
D. 22, a bundle of cuttings, price of any.....	6. 50

Many of these cloth patterns are by no means suitable, and it would appear that sufficient care is not bestowed upon their selection; probably D. 19 is the best assortment.

In this connection it is perhaps well to point out that all samples, whether of woolen or cotton goods, are intended rather to indicate the quality that is suitable than as assortments; the arrangement of the latter for new business naturally needs close study by those constantly in touch with the market.

Glass.—I have seen an invoice of plate glass, 80 feet to the case, fourth quality, 16 ounces, in 41 sizes, ranging from 12 by 10 inches to 42 by 40 inches, shipped here from Antwerp, costing 5s. 9d. per foot f. o. b., with freight 15s. per ton of 1,000 kilograms and 5 per cent.

Hats.—I inclose samples of hats made of imported straw braid in the factory here, as follows, viz:

	Per dozen.
G. 4 is a hat, of which price is	\$6. 75
G. 5 is a hat, of which price is	7. 50
G. 6a and G. 6b, two hats, of which price is	8. 00
G. 7a and G. 7b, two hats, of which price is	10. 00

This kind of hat, especially in the lower qualities, has a free sale. The industry is well protected, and the manufacturer has the additional advantage over one abroad of being able to make hats in small quantities to the special order as to shape and pattern of dealers in different small districts.

Machinery (including implements and tools of industry), other than steam engines.—While America holds the market for the commoner plows, a heavier and better-class article, without any wood in it, selling at about \$75, comes from Germany, and appears to have replaced, in great measure, the English machine of a corresponding grade. German sowers are also in favor.

In a large store (German) here, where there exists an admirably equipped machinery department containing American as well as German makes, which I visited, I was informed that the only English articles in the department were glass steam gauges and shafting bearings.

In further illustration of the remarks on the previous page, I may say that at least two enterprises here under English management find it necessary, when requiring renewals, etc., of parts of special machinery, to apply to a German house in Santiago, who lay themselves out, with the help of salesmen who are expert machinists, for this class of work.

IRON.

(e) *Wire.*—I inclose samples of the following, largely used in this district, viz:

* * * Twelve-gauge American galvanized barbed wire, four-point barbs, 6 inches apart, packed in bundles of two coils, weighing 44 kilo-

grams per coil, bought at \$1.80, gold, per 100 pounds, less 2 per cent f. o. b. at New York, with freight 14 cents per cubic foot and 5 per cent. * * * Belgian No. 14 wire, for training vines, packed in bundles of two coils, of 100 pounds each, and costing £8 16s. per ton net f. o. b., with freight 15s. per 1,000 kilograms and 5 per cent.

(k) *Manufactures of steel and iron.*—The bits and spurs import trade seems to be almost a thing of the past, and the natives content themselves with the articles made on the spot (except that the rowels of the spurs tempered so as to clink well are generally imported from England) mostly by boys during the winter months. I forward a sample * * * of a native-made bit of current sale, bought upcountry at \$30 per dozen cash, which is sold down here wholesale at \$42 per dozen, usual terms.

Plate and plated ware.—American cruet stands and such like articles, where glass is involved, are preferred to English, not because the American manufacturers beat us in the cost of the metal, but because they put in the cheapest kind of glass.

Soap.—I forward a sample of toilet soap made at a large factory in Chillan (a place on the railway between this and Santiago).

No. 319, a piece of soap put up in paper and marked "Savon d'Amandes Améres, Ed. Penaud." This is packed in ordinary parcels of 1 dozen pieces each, and sold at 65 cents per dozen net.

Mottled soap is made here of more or less similar quality to that referred to at page 31. Lower qualities are also produced in the district. One sells at about \$10.50 per quintal, less 6 per cent (yellow at \$9.25, less 6 per cent), and I believe for export to the north at even a lower figure.

Stationery, other than paper.—Blank books, which used to be an article of considerable import, would seem to be likely to go out, as on a book selling at 90 cents the new duty amounts to \$1.15.

Paper hangings come chiefly from Germany and France; very little from England.

Musical instruments.—I forward a sample * * * of an "Armonica de Boca,"¹ an article of large sale here. The sample is the most suitable size, and sells on the basis of the present high duty (\$15.50 per gross) at \$39 per gross. I believe cheaper imitations have been tried, but as they were found untrue in some notes they were promptly rejected.

Cotton umbrellas.—I forward a sample * * * of an Italian umbrella sold at \$17 per dozen, which is suitable and cheaper than German and French makes, which have hitherto principally supplied the market. The rainfall is heavy here, and heavier farther south; but in the Santiago region there is less need proportionately for umbrellas, as indicated by the fact that agriculture is conducted with the help of irrigation, while the northern part of the country is about as dry as Aden.

Furniture, cabinet, and upholstery wares.—So far as I have heard and observed, there is little or no English trade in these, and with the new tariff it is doubtful if anything will be imported but upholstery materials. At the local factory here I have seen good-looking high-backed chairs, of the style used for dining chairs in the country, made of "lingue" (the native oak), with cane seats and backs, at \$85 per dozen.

¹ Harmonica or mouth organ.—B. A. R.

LOCAL INDUSTRIES.

A few words in regard to some of those already referred to may not be out of place.

Tanneries.—The largest of these are in the south, in the neighborhood of Valdivia, whence tanned leather is freely exported. In Santiago I visited one of the leading tanneries there, whose annual consumption of the raw material was given me as follows: 10,000 dozen sheepskins, 2,000 dozen calfskins, 6,000 dozen kid skins, 8,000 dozen ox skins.

"Lingue" (Chilean oak) bark from the south is chiefly used for tanning, and also "algarobilla" from the northern coast. This tannery produces even patent and fancy leather, the only kinds which, I understand, are still imported.

Boots and shoes.—I visited the penitentiary in Santiago and saw the well-organized factory there installed by the contractor, who pays \$4,800 a year and 500 pairs of boots for the right to have the work of 250 hands; he is also supposed to pay the prisoners at the rate of not less than 40 cents per week, but, as a matter of fact, finds it to his interest to pay them a good deal more, probably on an average 20 cents per day. I was informed that from April till December, 1896, 72,000 pairs of boots were turned out for the Government from this establishment. One of the chief markets is that for the miners and nitrate workers of the north, for which a strong, rough, brown leather lace boot (the welt of which is sewn, and the sole and heel attached with brass nails) is made to sell at about \$32 per dozen pairs wholesale.

The presidio, or municipal gaol, is let out in a somewhat similar manner to another large contractor, who in addition has a fine modern factory on the outskirts of the city.

The machinery (all the contractor's) which I saw in the penitentiary may not, it appears to me, be quite up to date, but the sewing and nailing were both done by machines.

This industry is also largely conducted on the farming-out plan, as mentioned in my last.

Canning fruit, etc.—I visited one of the oldest fruit and vegetable canning factories in the country at Santiago. The owner reported his output as about 300,000 to 400,000 2-pound tins annually. The preparing and putting up of the fruit was done in about three months, and the rest of the year employed in making the cans, for which purpose he used about 1,200 cases (112 pounds each) of tin plates. He had the ordinary machines for making the cans, but did not use steam power. I forward two samples * * * of the tops of his 2-pound cans, which are struck in one operation. He also used a machine for putting a flange on the edges of the piece of tin forming the body of the can; the flanges were hooked together by hand and then stamped in another machine. He calculated the cost of his cans at 7 cents each. His product was packed in boxes containing 4 dozen tins, made on the premises at a cost of 35 cents each. I inclose a printed card showing prices.¹ There are several other factories in the district, and there are one or more fish canning establishments in the south, in addition to the crayfish cannery already referred to in Valparaiso.

Cloth.—I have already referred to the cloth made at the Fábrica Nacional de Tejidos in Santiago, and at the Tomé factory in this district. Neither of them is of great importance. The former uses a 20-horsepower engine, and the latter a 30 to 40 horsepower engine supplied

¹ See Appendix, No. 4, p. 45.

mented, or rather replaced partially or wholly in each case during a portion of the year, by water power. When in Santiago I visited the factory there. The engine is a Tangye's, the spinning machinery is part Platt's and part Belgian, and the weaving mostly Platt's, with some handlooms. It is difficult to arrive at the exact output of these factories, but from figures given me I gather that 100,000 to 120,000 meters per annum between them would not be far out.

Biscuits.—There are several factories of these. One of them, I understand, is conducted on up-to-date lines, and under able management.¹ The new tariff renders the business practically secure from foreign competition, I understand. Flour is all produced in the country practically, and some of the mills (under English control) are very fine.

Soap is made in a number of factories, mostly small. I visited one of the largest in the country in Santiago, where a good deal of fancy soap was made. The factory is in charge of an European expert, and turns out something like 25,000 quintals of soap and 3,500 quintals of tallow candles per annum. The fancy soap has fancy names, at least not Chilean ones.

In Concepcion I also visited a large factory in German hands, of more modern type than the one visited in Santiago, but having, I gather, a rather smaller output. No fancy articles are made in it, nor any candles. The soap is packed in rough boxes made of native laurel wood and lined with paper.

Furniture is already made to a considerable extent in the country, and, as already indicated, the industry is likely to increase. I visited one of the leading factories, which is in Concepcion. "Lingue" (native oak), previously referred to, and "rauli" (a sort of light-colored, bastard mahogany), seem to be the principal woods used for chairs and exteriors of sideboards, cupboards, etc., and "radal" (a superior hard wood) with native as well as imported walnut for higher class work. A German engine of 14 horsepower was all the motive power used.

Undershirts, socks, etc.—As a result of the new duties on these, a factory is being started with, I am informed, the most modern machinery, sufficient means, and expert management.

Sugar.—I visited two large factories, which have the trade between them, one at Viña del Mar, near Valparaiso, and the other at Penco, near Concepcion. The former turns out at present 1,500 tons per month from 1,600 tons of raw sugar. Almost every particle of crystallizable sugar is extracted by refining, and spirit is distilled from the uncrystallizable molasses which remains. A new plant for revivifying animal charcoal, previously referred to under the heading of machinery, is being put in; also a new vacuum pan from Germany, with an arrangement for utilizing exhaust steam, as well as direct steam, and a set of new centrifugals from Glasgow. These alterations and additions will increase the capacity of the refinery at least 25 per cent. The sugar is almost all turned out in the tablet form, the old-fashioned loaves being only made to a small extent. The tablets are carefully packed in wooden boxes for shipment. The boxes are made on the premises from native poplar by the aid of English sawing, planing, grooving, and nailing machinery. The native workman, I understand, is splendid at piecework, but unreliable in sticking to his job. He is also somewhat nomadic, and, as a consequence, the management is a good deal troubled by constantly having to teach new hands. The enterprise belongs to a

¹ In a subsequent letter Mr. Worthington states that, helped by the tariff, this factory "has commenced, with all adequate machinery, making sweetmeats in the best style."

company organized under the laws of Chile, which has a paid-up capital of \$3,000,000 and a reserve of \$1,000,000.

I also visited the Penco factory, whose output was given me as about 10,000 tons per annum. This factory, by the use of suitable furnaces, is able to utilize small coal from the neighboring mines, which is obtainable at \$4 a ton. Labor, too, is cheaper here than in the north, the wages of an ordinary laborer not exceeding \$1 a day. This Penco factory makes a certain proportion—perhaps 25 per cent—of soft sugar of rather lower quality, and turns out a large part of its white sugar in block instead of in tablet form.

The raw sugar which is imported for these factories has to be not over 18 Dutch standard in color. As will be gathered from the above, it is all a high class of raw sugar.

It may further be mentioned that the two factories just described have bought up between them an extensive and modernly equipped beet-sugar factory, erected within the last few years at a place called Parral, on the railway between Santiago and Concepcion, which came to grief under its former owners through being unable to get the beet-root grown. This difficulty, however, the present owners of the factory are confident of being able to overcome. The country is admirably suited to the growth of beets. * * *

COMMERCIAL TRAVELERS.

Since my last letter I have crossed the paths of a few more, but they do not appear to abound in Chile at present, and from all I can learn there have not been many comparatively of late. This is, doubtless, owing partially to the depressed condition of trade in the country, but also, from what I hear, to a good deal of unsatisfactory experience, both on the part of sellers and buyers, of the business done in the past. The fear of war between this country and the Argentine and the low price of nitrate are leading causes of the depression alluded to, while the country still feels the contraction of credit—possibly a healthy contraction—and the consequent decline in values resulting from the conversion of the paper currency.

CATALOGUES, ADVERTISING, ETC.

My attention has not infrequently been called to the superiority of our competitors' methods and the greater energy they display in these matters.

FREIGHT.

In this connection my serious attention has been called to the damage so frequently occasioned by the use of hooks in hoisting bales of goods on board British steamers, instead of the old-fashioned, but possibly slower, method of lifting the bales by means of clamps. Bales of British domestics, I am informed, constantly arrive with a number of the pieces cut through by the hooks, whereas American bales, with nothing like so strong a packing and no iron bands (only ropes), arrive with their contents uninjured.

TRADE-MARKS.

* * * * *

With reference to the observations made in my previous report as to trade-marks (see page 24), it may be proper to add that the Valparaiso

Chamber of Commerce (which is managed by a committee of twenty-two, has a recognized legal status, with power to sue in its own name, and deals with local customs, forms of contracts, charter parties, and any subject of general interest to the trade of the community, arbitrates commercial questions, and memorializes government authorities when the interests of commerce are threatened), has worked on the question of trade-marks but without result, owing, I gather, principally to the delicate nature of the subject in view of the opposing interests of different sections of the trading community.

In this connection it may not be out of place to refer to the complaints which are made in Valparaiso of the hardship sometimes experienced by importers of genuine liquors, preserved food stuffs, etc., owing to the want of a thoroughly intelligent and reasonable application of the law on the part of the municipal laboratory for the examination of food products sold in the city.

FINANCE.

In connection with what I wrote in my former letter under this head, it seems to me that the system in vogue with our English mercantile houses out here of having one or two managers interested in the business and all the other heads of departments merely salaried men tends naturally, and especially in houses having the largest turnover, to attention being devoted to a comparatively limited number of branches of trade or groups of articles dealt in, and does not tend to the development of business in the articles of lesser consumption or to the pushing of new manufactures, either of which call for an amount of personal labor and expenditure of time in the case of every such article which it would be impossible for a manager in the position indicated to bestow. I have been struck in Concepcion with the immense range of business undertaken by a certain German house here, and its apparently complete departmental system, in which the heads of departments are remunerated by commission in addition to their salaries.

* * * * *

I am, etc.,

THOS. WORTHINGTON,
Commissioner.

ADDITIONAL NOTES EXTRACTED FROM PERSONAL COMMUNICATIONS FORWARDED BY MR. WORTHINGTON.

CHILE.

NOTE 1. As to basis of Chilean valuations for the purposes of trade statistics:

"I have no doubt they (the valuations) were fixed, as is usual in such cases, by a commission appointed for the purpose, but it would take a good deal of study on the spot to determine what relation such valuations bear to the market values of the goods from year to year, especially when one considers that the relation is by no means a constant one, but varies in different articles, as I found out when trying in vain to get a general statement as to the increase in duties brought about by the new valuations and tariff which came into force this year. I have used the valuations in the only way they could be used, viz, as indicating the proportions of the total belonging to each country and each year. The valuations which are used in the statistics quoted by

me, and which will still be used in 1897, have not been altered for twenty years. * * * The new valuations which came into force this year were fixed by a commission, I believe, some two years ago, and were of course supposed to represent more or less the market values at that time. * * * The Chilean custom-house valuations fixed twenty years ago were doubtless intended by the people who fixed them to be market values at that time in gold dollars. As gold went down afterwards, a gradually increasing premium was charged to compensate for this. Latterly this premium was 75 per cent."

NOTE 2. Replies to specific questions addressed to Mr. Worthington by the Alkali Manufacturers' Association, so far as the questions relate to Chile:

1. Question. Are the various "alkalies" and allied products imported into these countries wholly of English manufacture; and, if not, from what other countries are such other alkalies imported?

Answer. Of alkalies and allied products named only the following appear in the official statistics for 1896. I give the number of kilos dispatched for consumption that year, viz:

Country.	Caustic soda.	Sulphate of copper.
	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>
Great Britain.....	2, 137, 805	69, 905
Germany.....	383, 126	41, 442
France.....	44, 060	Nil.

2. Question. Are any native forms of alkali employed in these countries; and if so, in what industries are they used, and at what prices are they sold, and from what districts are they derived?

Answer. None.

[Samples of any such native alkalies would be of great value.]

3. Question. What is the present position and the prospects of the following industries: Soap making, paper making, glass making, mineral-water making, and wool washing? Are any of these industries likely to increase in the near future?

Answer. Soap making, paper making, glass making, and mineral-water making should all increase under the new tariff. Chile wool is shipped unwashed.

4. Question. What are the chief centers of these various industries, and are there any new centers where they are likely to develop?

Answer. Centers of special industries can hardly be said to exist. Factories will continue to be placed close to the railway, with a preference for a proximity as well to a port or the capital. These industries are all in the central portion of Chile—say Valparaiso and south thereof.

ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

NOTE 3. Preliminary observations with regard to progress of native industries in the Argentine Republic:

"Native industries of sorts would seem to be developing in the Argentine, e. g., beer, paper, matches, soap, shoes, common glassware,

etc. The wine product of the Mendoza district is estimated this year at 500,000 *bordalezas* (barrels) of 200 liters each. A great deal of money has been made at this business, and according to a successful Italian, whose very fine establishment I visited, there is plenty more to be made, as the demand is far ahead of the supply. The grapes are pressed and the wine fermented, filtered, and dispatched for Buenos Ayres or Rosario in about three weeks. The figures given me as below seem to show ample margins for expenses and profits, viz: Value of a hectare of bearing vines (French kind, not Creole), \$4,000; yield of grapes per hectare, 200 quintals; value per quintal \$3.50; about 7 quintals will yield 200 liters of wine; value per liter about 25 cents, or \$50 a barrel."

APPENDIX No. 1.

CONDITIONS OF TENDER FOR LOCOMOTIVES AND ROLLING STOCK.

(See page 10.)

[Extract from the *Diario Oficial* of January 26, 1898.]

Ministerio de Industria i Obras Públicas.

En conformidad al supremo decreto, número 44, de 22 del actual,

ART. 1. Pídense propuestas públicas para la construcción en el país del siguiente equipo para los ferrocarriles de trocha de un metro:

Locomotoras de pasajeros, locomotoras de carga, coches de primera clase, coches de segunda clase, coches mistos de primera i de segunda clase, coches de tercera clase, carros de equipaje, carros bodegas, carros de rejás, carros cajones, carros planos, e carros polvoreros.

ART. 2. Las propuestas deberán hacerse por precios unitarios i conformarse á los pliegos de especificaciones, á los planos i diseños formados por la dirección de tracción de los ferrocarriles del Estado.

Las propuestas se subordinarán también á los pliegos adjuntos de condiciones generales.

Cada proponente indicará el número de locomotoras, coches i carros que pretenda construir i que, al precio señalado en la propuesta, esté comprendido dentro de la suma de un millon quinientos mil pesos que el Gobierno puede invertir con arreglo á lo dispuesto en el artículo 2 de la lei número 998, de 17 del actual.

El Gobierno se reserva el derecho de fraccionar las propuestas i de aceptar parcialmente las que tenga á bien.

ART. 3. Las propuestas deberán presentarse en los formularios impresos que proporcionará la dirección de tracción de los ferrocarriles del Estado, i se abrirán en el salón del consejo de obras públicas ante el sub-secretario del ramo el 5 de febrero próximo, á las 3 p. m.

ART. 4. Cada proponente deberá acompañar á su propuesta—

(a) Como garantía de la seriedad de la propuesta, una boleta de depósito bancario á la órden del ministerio de industria i obras públicas por una cantidad que equivalga al cuarto por ciento del valor total de la propuesta.

El depósito á que se refiere este inciso será devuelto tan pronto como se haya tomado una resolución sobre las propuestas.

(b) Una boleta de fianza previamente calificada por el director del tesoro, por una cantidad que equivalga al diez por ciento del valor total de la propuesta.

Si la propuesta es aceptada, la boleta de fianza será incorporada en la escritura pública respectiva, como garantía del contrato, i en caso contrario será devuelta al interesado.

(c) Una indicación precisa de la fábrica en que se proponga construir el equipo con datos que permitan juzgar que ésta tiene los elementos propios para llevar á cabo la obra.

Esta indicación deberá ser suscrita por el dueño de la fábrica ó por su representante autorizado.

ART. 5. Una tercera parte del valor de las propuestas que se acepten será pagado al firmar la escritura pública del contrato previa la rendición de una fianza especial independiente de la fianza jeneral establecida en el segundo inciso del artículo anterior i calificada por el director del tesoro por el importe de la suma que se anticipará.

El pago de las dos terceras partes restantes se hará en la forma siguiente:

Veinticinco por ciento a la llegada de los materiales del extranjero, según las facturas originales que acepte la dirección jeneral de obras públicas.

Veinticinco por ciento una vez que el equipo esté armado en esqueleto.

Veinticinco por ciento cuando se encuentre pintado i concluido en los talleres de construcción a satisfacción de la mencionada dirección, i finalmente,

Veinticinco por ciento cuando el equipo sea entregado sobre la línea du su destino.

ART. 6. Los proponentes deberán indicar separadamente el recargo de precio que exigirán por el trasporte del equipo i su entrega armado i listo para correr en cada una de las tres líneas siguientes: Vilos á Illapel, Calera á Ligua i Cabildo, i Talca a Constitución.

ART. 7. Por cada día de atraso en la conclusión del equipo, a contar desde las doce del día que se fija en la propuesta los contratistas pagarán una multa que equivaiga al dos por mil de los precios del contrato, sin perjuicio de que pueda declararse resuelto sin responsabilidad alguna para el fisco i solo en virtud del decreto supremo que así lo ordene.

EL SUB-SECRETARIO.

[Translation.]

Ministry of Industry and Public Works.

In conformity with the supreme decree, No. 44, of the 22d instant.

ART. 1. Public tenders are invited for the construction in this country of the following material for railways of 1-meter gauge:

Locomotives for passenger trains, locomotives for goods trains, first-class carriages, second-class carriages, composite first and second class carriages, third-class carriages, luggage vans, trucks with windows, open, flat, and powder trucks.

ART. 2. The tenders should be made on a scale of cost uniform with the specification tenders, drawn up according to the drafts issued by the directors of traction of the state railways.

The tenders shall be, moreover, subjected to the conditions of a general character laid down on those drafts.

Each person handing in a tender shall state the number of locomotives, carriages, and trucks which he proposes to build, at the price stated in his tender, to be included in the sum of 1,500,000 pesos, which the Government is empowered to spend in agreement with article 2 of the law, No. 998, of the 17th instant.

The Government reserves to itself the right of breaking up the tenders, and of accepting in part what it then approves of.

ART. 3. The tenders must be presented on the printed forms supplied by the director of traction of the state railways, and will be opened in the salon of the council of public works in the presence of the under secretary of the branch, on the 5th of February next, at 3 p. m.

ART. 4. Each person making a proposal must send, with his tender:

(a) As a guaranty of the serious nature of the offer, a banker's bill to the order of the ministry of industry and public works for a sum equivalent to 4 per cent of the total value of the tender.

This deposit will be returned as soon as the Government has come to a decision with regard to the tenders.

(b) A security bond, previously attested by the director of the treasury, for an amount equivalent to 10 per cent of the total value of the tender.

If the tender is accepted, the security bond will be incorporated in the policy as a guaranty of the contract; and if not, will be returned to the interested party.

(c) A precise indication of the factory in which it is proposed to construct the material, with facts of a nature to allow it to be perceived how long the work of manufacture is likely to take.

This indication must be signed by the proprietor of the factory, or by his authorized representative.

ART. 5. A third part of the value of the tenders which are accepted will be paid when the public contract is signed, previously to the giving up of a special guaranty, independent of the general guaranty mentioned in clause 2 of the previous article, and attested by the director of the treasury as the amount of the sum of which was expected.

The payment of the two remaining thirds will be effected in the following scale:

Twenty-five per cent when the material for the work is supplied, in accordance with the original bills accepted by the director-general of public works.

Twenty-five per cent as soon as the skeleton of the work is completed.

Twenty-five per cent when it is found to be finished in the building workshops to the satisfaction of the said director; and finally,

Twenty five per cent when the whole work stands finished and in working order on the line for which it has been made.

ART. 6. Persons submitting tenders must indicate separately the special price demanded for the transport of the goods when they are completed and fitted out to run on each of the three following lines: Vilos to Illapel, Calera to Ligua and Cabildo, and Talca to Constitucion.

ART. 7. For each day in arrears at the conclusion of the work, counting from noon on the day which is fixed in the tender, the contractors will pay a fine equivalent to 0.2 per cent (2 per 1,000) of the price of the contract, without prejudice to what may eventually be decided to be the responsibility to the exchequer, and solely in virtue of the supreme decree which is hereby promulgated.

THE UNDER SECRETARY.

APPENDIX No. 2.

[Extract from the Chilean Times of March 12, 1898.]

STATE RAILWAYS—NARROW-GAUGE ROLLING STOCK—TENDERS ACCEPTED.

(See page 10.)

The following tenders for narrow-gauge rolling stock have been accepted by the Government:

LEVER, MURPHY & CO.

Five goods locomotives, at \$28,800 each; two to be delivered in 52 weeks, and the remaining three in 87 weeks.

Five passenger locomotives, at \$30,028 each; three to be delivered in 52 weeks, and the remaining two in 87 weeks.

Ten tenders, to be delivered with the locomotives, at \$7,000 each.

One set of duplicates for goods locomotives for \$11,615, to be delivered in 52 weeks.

One set of duplicates for passenger locomotives for \$12,320, to be delivered in 52 weeks.

Sixty eight-wheeled flat trucks, at \$2,200 each; one-half to be delivered in 39 weeks, and the other half in 152 weeks.

BALFOUR, LYON & CO.

Six second-class passenger cars, at \$9,500 each.

Twelve third-class passenger cars, at \$6,500 each.

Ten four-wheeled trucks, at \$1,875 each.

All this stock to be delivered in three installments; the first in 38 weeks, the second in 65 weeks, and the third in 90 weeks.

HARDIE & CO.

Nine first-class passenger cars, at \$11,700 each.

Six composite first and second class passenger cars, at \$10,800 each.

Six luggage vans, at \$5,400 each.

Ten eight-wheeled cars, at \$3,200 each.

Ten four-wheeled cars, at \$2,300 each.

Six powder cars, at \$3,850 each.

All this stock to be delivered in three installments: The first in 40 weeks, the second in 66 weeks, and the third in 92 weeks.

TOMAS STILLMAN.

Sixty eight-wheeled trucks, at \$3,100 each.

Eighty four-wheeled covered trucks, at \$2,150 each.

Eighty four-wheeled trucks, at \$1,650 each.

This stock is to be delivered in three installments: The first, of 90 trucks, in 30 weeks; the second, also of 90, in 50 weeks; and the third, of 40, in 70 weeks.

In the event of the contractors being required by the Government to deliver the rolling stock at the respective lines, they are to be compensated as follows:

Los Vilos, Illapel, and Salamanca line.

Lever, Murphy & Co.:	
For each locomotive	\$2,388
For each tender	1,194
For each truck	320
Balfour, Lyon & Co.:	
For each second and third class coach	1,080
For each four-wheeled truck	280
Hardie & Co.:	
For each passenger coach and each luggage van	1,076
For each eight-wheeled truck	433
For each four-wheeled truck and each powder car	277
Tomas Stillman:	
For each eight-wheeled truck	500
For each four-wheeled truck	250

Calera and Cabildo line.

Lever, Murphy & Co.:	
For each passenger engine	572
For each goods engine	592
For each tender	296
For each flat truck	100
Balfour, Lyon & Co.:	
For each second or third class coach	350
For each four-wheeled truck	120
Hardie & Co.:	
For each first-class, and composite first and second class, and each luggage van	346
For each eight-wheeled truck	184
For each four-wheeled truck and each powder car	120
Tomas Stillman:	
For each eight-wheeled truck	240
For each four-wheeled truck	120

Talca and Constitucion line.

Lever, Murphy & Co.:	
For each eight-wheeled flat truck	273
Balfour, Lyon & Co.:	
For each second or third class coach	950
Hardie & Co.:	
For each first or composite coach and each luggage van	946
For each eight-wheeled truck	736
For each four-wheeled truck and each powder car	363
Tomas Stillman:	
For each eight-wheeled truck	500
For each four-wheeled truck	250

APPENDIX No. 3.

ADVERTISEMENT OF GERMAN SHIPPING LINE RUNNING BETWEEN HAMBURG AND CHILE.

(See page 22.)

(As in original.)

THE LARGEST SAILING VESSEL "POTOSI."

Going out from the principle that the management of a very large and fast-sailing vessel is by much more profitable than of a steamship. the shipowner, F. Laiesz, of this place, let construct the *Potosi*, the largest sailing vessel of the world. Built out

of steel, it has, with a capacity for charging about 6,150 tons, a length of 362, a width of 49½, and a height of 32½ feet. The *Potosi* has five masts, whereof the foremast is 178 feet high, larger than many a church's steeple. 49 sails, covering a plain of about 52 thousand square feet, are serving to bring forward that colossus with a crew of only 42 men. The voyage from Hamburg to Valparaiso (Chile) the *Potosi* sailed in 58 days, what is a very fast voyage, because a steamship also is under way 42 days.

APPENDIX No. 4.

PRICE LIST OF A LOCAL FRUIT CANNING ESTABLISHMENT.

(See page 36.)

FRUTAS EN CONSERVA.

Frutillas (strawberries) el cajón	\$22
Duraznos (peaches) de Zaragoza	20
Duraznos (peaches) de San José	20
Duraznos (peaches) blancos	18
Damascos (apricots)	18
Guindas (cherries)	18
Uvas (grapes)	18
Membrillos (quinces)	18
Surtido (assorted)	18

El cajón contiene 4 docenas de tarros de 2 libras i se entrega a domicilio en Santiago o en la Estación de los Ferrocarriles.

LEGUMBRES EN CONSERVA.

Espárragos: Clase corriente, docena de tarros	\$15
Tomates: Cajón de 4 doc. de tarros. de 2 libras	14

Descuentos.—Se llama la atención de los comerciantes á los descuentos que ofrece esta Fábrica.

THIRD REPORT. THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

BUENOS AYRES, *August 18, 1898.*

THE SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

SIR: I arrived here from Chile on June 3. Buenos Ayres is many times larger than any other port or city of the Argentine Republic, containing as it does something like one-sixth of the entire population of the latter (664,000 by the last census, 1895, out of a total of 3,955,000),¹ and it may fairly be said to be the one great business center of the country. As regards the import business more especially, the tendency of improved communication throughout the land seems to be to concentrate it more than ever in Buenos Ayres. I have therefore devoted to inquiry here almost the whole of the time I had allotted for investigating, in conformity with your letter of December 21 last, the question of diminished demand for articles of British produce and manufacture in Argentina.

From the official Government statistics, which are based upon custom-house valuations (mostly fixed by the tariff, not declared), I have extracted the following comparative table (given in millions of gold dollars) of goods received from the six principal countries and dispatched for consumption from all the custom-houses of the Republic for each of the last ten years:

Country.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	44.0	56.8	57.8	28.3	35.8	32.5	35.6	39.5	44.7	36.4
Germany	13.3	15.5	12.3	6.2	10.7	11.0	10.7	11.2	13.9	11.1
United States	9.9	16.8	9.3	3.4	7.4	9.6	10.1	6.7	11.2	10.1
France	23.0	30.2	19.9	7.9	10.4	12.1	10.2	9.1	12.0	11.0
Belgium	11.1	14.0	11.0	6.4	6.6	9.6	9.0	7.4	8.5	8.0
Italy	7.8	10.2	8.7	4.2	8.4	9.3	8.9	10.4	11.4	10.9
Other countries	19.3	22.1	23.2	10.8	12.2	12.1	8.3	10.8	10.5	10.7
Total	128.4	165.6	142.2	67.2	91.5	96.2	92.8	95.1	112.2	98.2

This table does not seem to demonstrate as yet any serious comparative falling off in British imports as a whole, although in many directions, as will appear later, there has been a falling off. I say comparative, because, owing to the fact of the tariff valuations being subject to revision annually and to the impossibility of stating with accuracy what relation the valuations have all round to market values, these figures are more valuable in a relative than in an absolute sense, and the only sound comparison to be made from them is that of the percentages of the total in any given year with the percentages of the total in any other year.

¹The correct returns of the census of 1895 give total population as 4,044,911.—B. A. R.

Reducing the figures for the last five years just given to percentages of the total of each, we have:

Country.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom.....	33.8	38.4	41.5	39.8	37.1
Germany.....	11.4	11.5	11.8	12.4	11.8
United States.....	10.0	10.9	7.0	10.0	10.3
France.....	12.6	11.0	9.6	10.7	11.2
Belgium.....	10.0	9.7	7.8	7.6	8.1
Italy.....	9.7	9.6	10.9	10.2	11.1
Others.....	12.5	8.9	11.4	9.3	10.9

In making use of the foregoing figures it must be remembered that the country of origin is given according to the port of shipment. E. g., all goods from Antwerp appear as Belgian, though they may really be Dutch, German, or French. I also desire to point out that the full statistics for 1897, giving the countries of origin for specific articles, are not yet published, so that I have had to rely on 1896 figures for most recent authoritative indications in this respect.

The import business in Buenos Ayres is much spread out and carried on through many different channels. Dealers are also importers in numberless cases, and merchants sometimes compete with dealers for their buyers, while local manufacturers, who appear to have developed a wonderful trade under the fostering influence of a custom-house tariff framed to help them, often compete with importers, and in several directions have done so with entire success.

The large importing dealers have their own agents in Europe, and often visit producing markets themselves, while smaller ones order through agents or travelers what they do not buy in this market. Moreover, outside the merchants and wholesale houses, who are either entirely or partially importers, there is a large importation, e. g., by the railways (practically all English, with the exception of one French and three Government lines), by large retailers, by local factories, by European manufacturers' agents, etc.

Owing to competition (which entails a thorough study of the business engaged in), different trades, or groups of trades, generally keep separate as in Europe; the old-fashioned importing merchant who imported everything is rare, and when he exists he carries on different businesses in separate departments.

Commercial travelers have a large field, both in representation of shipping houses and manufacturers. The great bulk of business is financed by means of credits in Europe (or the United States), whether in the nature of direct arrangements with shippers or by bankers' credits, but there is a certain amount of business done direct by draft on the importer here. By the courtesy of four of the leading banks, I obtained their figures of draft collections for two years, and from these I estimate the total of such business at from £2,000,000 to £2,200,000 per annum. This compares with a total custom-house value of goods dispatched of £22,433,000 in 1896 and £19,644,000 in 1897.

The majority of the national manufacturing industries are established in, or in the neighborhood of, this city. While some of them are engaged in working the raw material of the country, as, for example, the cloth factories and the boot and shoe industries, most of them seem to owe their existence chiefly to provisions made for their benefit in the custom-house tariff, aided by the premium on gold. Those established in recent years, when the gold premium was much higher than at present,

no doubt feel keenly the decline which has taken place. A further heavy decline would probably result in closing not a few of the weaker ones, to the advantage of the import trade. At the same time, it seems likely that the majority of local manufacturing industries, thanks to the willingness to help them on the part of the legislators of the country, to the supply which now exists of skilled workmen in various trades, and to the personal work and attention of the owners, have come to stay, although weaker individual factories may have to go.

The usual terms of credit here are, in the dry goods trade, five months' promissory notes signed three months after the end of the month in which sale is made, and in the hardware trade six months' promissory notes signed at the end of the month following that in which sale is made. Prices of imported goods are all quoted in gold, and buyers have the option of signing promissory notes in gold or of converting to currency at once and signing in the same, leaving the risk of gold variation to the seller. The frequent auctions, and the endeavor on the part of some sellers to sell for cash or accept payment under heavy discount ($8\frac{1}{2}$ per cent I have heard of in dry goods), are as much the result of the long credit and risk of gold variation, it seems to me, as of the keen competition to which they are apt to be attributed. Local factories usually sell in currency at six months, promissory notes dating from end of month following that in which sale is made, or less 5 per cent for cash in thirty days.

Custom-house duties are payable in gold. The percentage rates of duty are charged upon fixed values in most cases, which values are subject to revision annually. * * *

I inclose a memorandum¹ *re* custom-house matters, and would add that in actual business it is desirable for shippers (even though selling, as they should, f. o. b. or c. i. f.), if possible to employ good local agents, and not to leave their interests in the custom-house to buyers. The custom-house, so far as I can learn, appears to be well administered, and evasion of the law to be difficult, but shippers must remember that no amount of documentary evidence that a mistake was a mistake will avail to effect the recovery of a fine imposed according to law.

In the following report, in which the classification called for by your letter of 21st December last (*viz*, the classification given in the lists set out in Blue Book, C 8449, pp. 17-20) is adopted as far as possible, it is to be noted that, when not otherwise stated—

Prices are wholesale in gold for imported and in currency for national goods, and terms of credit are as heretofore stated.

Duties are taken from the tariff now in force,² and the "adición" has been added in all cases, making 5 per cent, 6 per cent; 10 per cent, 12 per cent; 25 per cent, 27 per cent, etc.

Exchange may be taken at 4s. per dollar, and gold price may be taken at 268 per cent.

Alkali.—Soda ash for the soap makers, and for whatever wool scouring is done (preparing wool for sale to the local factories, etc.), comes from England.

Caustic soda comes chiefly from England, but a certain amount was brought until recently from the Continent, and was reported purer of its kind. It is stated that caustic soda by the electric process is now offered more cheaply from the United States. Only 70 to 72 degrees stuff is wanted here. The article is only used by more advanced soap makers.

¹ See Appendix I, p. 78.

² Tariff of February 10, 1898.—B. A. R.

Bicarbonate of soda (and sesquicarbonate) for making soda water, with the exception of a little from Germany and Belgium, comes from England.

Soda crystals (and a little carbonate of potash) for domestic uses, painters, etc., comes almost entirely from England.

Carbonate of soda, ammoniacal, called "solvæ," used by the glass makers, comes almost entirely from England. So far as I can make out, this article and soda crystals are included under the same heading in the statistics, viz, "carbonato de soda cristalizado;" liquid ammonia, "amoniaco liquido," is comparatively of but trifling importance (44 tons, against 884 tons of "carbonato de soda cristalizado" in 1896).

Sulphate of copper seems not to come as much from the United States as from England. One importer says he now gets 98 to 99 per cent stuff at \$84 per ton; c. i. f., by steamer from New York, put up in barrels of 100 and 75 kilos, instead of 150-kilo barrels, as from England, and in better barrels.

The foregoing alkalis are the only ones the importation of which is of any importance.

Chloride of lime (bleaching powder) comes from several countries, chiefly from England, the highest product being preferred, but also in larger proportion from the Continent.

Chlorate of potash (and chlorate of soda) for match makers; the chief competitor of England seems to be Belgium.

Silicate of soda for soap makers is little used, but I hear that a factory for making "asbestos" paint is being started, which will require this alkali.

In sal ammoniac and muriate of ammonia for soldering purposes, hyposulphate of soda for photography, and acetate of soda for dyers, the trade is trifling; in caustic potash and sulphite of ammonia, insignificant; whilst salt cake does not appear to be used at all.

There appear to be very few native forms of alkali.¹

Mineral-water making is carried on extensively in the country, but there is and always will be probably, a certain amount imported; in fact, the total import increased from 58,000 dozen in 1893 to 136,000 dozen in 1896.

Wool scouring, as indicated above, is but a very limited industry at present, and is likely to remain such so long as shippers do not find it to their advantage to ship scoured instead of greasy wool.

Soap, paper, and glass making I refer to under their several headings.

Live animals are imported for breeding purposes to some extent, and, with the exception of sheep and pigs from the neighboring Republic of Uruguay, chiefly come from the United Kingdom, whence came in 1896 144 horses, 7,071 sheep, 92 hogs, and 874 bulls.

Apparel and haberdashery.—Owing to the high duty on ready-made clothing, comparatively little is imported.

Articles of haberdashery, such as needles, pins, hairpins, braid, buckles, etc., come chiefly from the Continent.

I forward samples of some hooks and eyes and buckles, all said to be German goods, as follows:

* * * Three boxes of hooks and eyes, white, black, and straw color, respectively, considered very suitable. They are packed 20 pairs in a box, and three dozen boxes in each paper packet, and cost francs 3.60 per gross of boxes for white and straw color, and francs 2.50 per

¹In Mendoza, which I visited en route to Chile in February, soap is made with the ash of burnt "Jumen silvestre" in a rough and ready fashion, and sold at \$12 per quintal locally, quality being good.

gross of boxes for black, less 2 and 2 per cent, packed, placed in port. Now, I understand, they would cost less. Sometimes the goods come with boxes nearly full, sometimes with as few as 5 pairs in each, but 20 pairs is considered the best.

* * * Two buckles, one black and the other white, put up in paper packets of 1 gross each, which cost francs 52 per double gross, less 5 and 2 per cent, packed, placed in port.

ARMS AND AMMUNITION.

The Government buy their own supplies in Europe.

(a) *Firearms (small).*—Revolvers from the United States have the preference, but continental imitations of these are also sold. Belgian shotguns have the largest sale.

(b) *Gunpowder*, which is made in the country to some extent, is imported chiefly from England. The sale of a well-known English make is reported threatened just now by the makers declining to change their form of package.

(c) *Other kinds.*—Shot is almost all made in the country. The consumption is very large. I am credibly informed that it is roughly from 80 to 90 tons per month. Empty shot cartridges and caps have hitherto come almost entirely from the Continent, but the former are now being made here to some extent, and the business is expected to assume much larger proportions. I inclose a price list¹ of the factory referred to. Bullet cartridges are almost all imported loaded.

Bags, empty.—The import of these is comparatively trifling, almost the whole supply being made in the country from imported Hessians, about a third of which in 1896 came by way of Germany and two-thirds by way of and from England. The duty on Hessians is 5 per cent on a valuation of 20 cents per kilo (equal to 1 cent per kilo), against a specific duty of 3 cents per kilo, plus four-tenths of a cent for "adicion" on bags.

Beer and ale.—The importation of these articles is comparatively trifling; 43,488 dozen bottles were dispatched from the custom-house in 1896, against a possible production by the five principal breweries, almost all worked on the German principle, of over 300,000 hectoliters. The price at two of these principal breweries is 30 cents per liter, or \$4 currency per dozen bottles.

Biscuits and bread.—The Argentine Republic exports both wheat and flour, and the manufacture of biscuits in the country supplies the bulk of the demand. Thirty tons of 1,000 kilos was all the import in 1896, of which 27 came from the United Kingdom.

Books, printed.—There is no copyright acknowledged here, and the custom-house admits everything. The demand is practically all for novels and cheapest editions. The English cheap editions do not get out for three or four years after the issue of the original edition. Formerly American cheap editions were generally to be had within a year of the publication of the first edition in England, but of late I understand these American editions have not come.

Candles of all sorts.—Both stearin and tallow candles are made in the country, and the amount imported is quite small; the bulk of it comes from the Continent. The local industry is protected by a specific duty of 10 cents per kilo, plus six-tenths of a cent "adicion," while the tallow is produced in the country, and the soda ash (the alkali chiefly used) only pays 6 per cent on a valuation of 3 cents per kilo, gross.

¹ See Appendix II, p. 79.

Caoutchouc.—India-rubber tubes, both plain and of wire covered with india-rubber, as well as india-rubber sheets, come from the Continent as well as England. I forward a sample * * * of a section of a German wire and india-rubber tube. I could not ascertain the cost, but was assured by the importer that it was 20 per cent less than the English make, and that, in fact, this is about the difference all through in these articles.

Carriages and wagons, railway.—As already mentioned, the railways are all British, with the exception of one French and three less important lines which belong to the Government, viz., the Central Northern, from Tucuman north; the San Cristobal, from San Cristobal to Tucuman, both narrow (meter) gauge, and the Andino, from Villa Maria to Villa Mercedes, which is the standard gauge, 5 feet 6 inches. The tendency of the British-owned lines is naturally to bring rolling stock from the United Kingdom or to make it themselves, although a good deal has come in the past from the United States.

I visited the shops of the largest company, and found them to be very extensive and complete. The company is going to build others on a more extensive scale. I noticed passenger cars on the American plan being built here and fitted with native cedar and lapacho (a wood similar to oak). Another large line brings its sleeping cars from the United States, finding that English makers can not turn them out so satisfactorily; again, another makes its own sleepers.

The Government lines are supplied by tender, and I was informed by the chief superintendent that recently the orders for the trucks for two-axle broad-gauge wagons went to French makers, for four-axle broad-gauge wagons to English, and for narrow-gauge rolling stock to the United States. I have since heard of an order for broad-gauge stock going there, too. It is evident, however, from the statistics for "materials for railways," that almost the whole of these came from the United Kingdom (\$1,835,000 out of a total of \$1,849,000) in 1896. This does not include steel rails.

Cement.—The largest import of this article is from Belgium, whence it appears to come cheapest; the figures of the four principal producing countries are as follows:

[In tons of 1,000 kilos.]

Country.	1894.	1895.	1896.
United Kingdom	10, 419	11, 218	13, 073
Germany	857	973	1, 529
Belgium	9, 968	13, 579	18, 643
France	2, 237	2, 910	6, 435

The materials for making cement, viz, fire clay and lime, are found in the country, and it is asserted that experiments have proved the possibility of a successful local industry could a factory be started on a sufficiently large scale. The attempts made hitherto on a small scale have not been successful.

Chemical products and preparations.—Sulphate of copper has already been referred to under the heading of "Alkali." It is also made in the country at the dynamite factory.

Sulphuric acid, hitherto imported principally from Germany and Belgium, is now being made in the country from the refuse of gas works at a factory started in connection with the manufacture of stearin candles and at the dynamite factory above mentioned.

Boracic acid, a small trade, will also probably be made at the first-named factory from very pure borate of lime found in the country, and muriatic acid is produced at the dynamite factory.

Prussian blue is likewise produced at the factory connected with the stearin works.

Tartaric acid now comes from France and Italy.

Clay.—A few hundred tons of kaolin, mostly from Belgium, find their way here. I understand that this article is found in great abundance in the country, and an attempt was made some years ago to establish pottery works, which, however, were not successful.

Clocks and watches.—The following figures, showing the numbers from the principal manufacturing countries dispatched from the custom-houses of the Republic for three years, may be of interest, viz:

	1894.	1895.	1896.
GOLD WATCHES.			
France	3, 571	2, 509	3, 792
Germany.....	826	539	843
(United Kingdom)	(6)	(6)	(24)
OTHER WATCHES.			
France	22, 127	33, 946	39, 141
Germany.....	6, 403	7, 825	6, 767
(United Kingdom)	(117)	(503)	(328)
CLOCKS.			
France (8,054 in 1893)	103	3, 311	2, 069
Germany.....	12, 985	18, 675	23, 916
United States	11, 194	3, 513	8, 977
(United Kingdom)	(924)	(110)	(797)

Coal and coke.—Practically all comes from England (South Wales), and there is no native coal to compete, although a little poor stuff is reported to exist in the Cordillera.

Cordage and twine.—Sisal cordage is best known, and most generally used. It appears that for some time past the United States market has been the cheapest for this. Jute cordage from Italy, of excellent appearance, costing, to sell, about 23 cents gold per kilo, was shown me as sold as Italian hemp, which costs 20 per cent more.

Seaming twine comes chiefly from Great Britain, but the Italian wet-spun twine is considered to have a better appearance and competes now. I forward a sample * * * of 3-ply Italian seaming twine, which is put up in packets of 5 kilos each, 60 of which go in a bale, and costs 1.74 francs per kilo, c. i. f. Buenos Ayres.

Whipcord, for making girths, etc., comes from Italy.

Tarred strand, or "filástica" (tarred twine loosely twisted into rope so as to be readily untwisted as required), is used for tying roofs and for agricultural work. I forward a sample of this article, which is one of large sale, * * * being a piece of French flastica, of an average good quality, which cost 48 francs per 100 kilos, f. o. b. Antwerp, no discount.

Cotton cordage and twine come from the United States, and cotton waste is now beginning to come thence. A common kind of this is made in the country.

Cotton yarns.—Cotton yarn is imported in cops, and pays a duty of $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent on a valuation of 40 cents per kilo, against duties on cotton textures which, while in most cases nominally from 25 to 27 per cent, are, owing to the excessive valuations, really equal, I am credibly informed, to duties something like double the figure stated.

The weaving industry is not large, but the figures of yarn imported show a steady development, as follows:

	Tons of 1,000 kilos.
1893	298
1894	770
1895	894
1896	1,585

In the above amounts the principal sources of supply are as follows:

Country.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
United Kingdom	219	500	587	868
Germany and Belgium	26	51	103	217
Italy	34	157	156	410

The large increase in the amount of Italian yarn used will be noticed. I understand this is continuing and is likely to continue.

Most of the yarn from Italy is grandrilled, which is what is chiefly wanted, and the cost is cheaper. I am informed by those who used to be importers of the English article that the cost is lower by as much as 15 per cent in the case of colored yarns. The cheaper freights from Genoa, as compared with those from northern European ports, is a feature in this, but will not alone account for such a difference as that just noted.

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

(a) *White or plain piece goods.*—The great bulk of these are still British, but there is a certain amount of competition in some directions, e. g., American flannelets, both white and gray, are preferred. I forward samples, as follows:

* * * White flannelet, "F" mark, 27½ inches wide, 14.3 kilos per 100 meters, which cost 5½d. per yard f. o. b. New York.

* * * White flannelet, "XL" mark, 30 inches wide, 20.8 kilos per 100 meters, first cost in United States 8½ cents per yard.

* * * American gray flannelet, "F" mark, 27½ inches wide, 15 kilos per 100 meters, cost 5½d. per yard, packed, f. o. b. New York.

* * * American gray flannelet, "XL" mark, 29 inches wide, 20 kilos per 100 meters, first cost in United States 7½ cents per yard.

There is an important Italian factory here, which, under the protection of the duties referred to under the heading of cotton yarns, produces, in addition to hosiery and colored fabrics, both white and gray goods. I forward samples of both latter, as follows, viz:

* * * A piece of white shirting, marked "Vedetta," 81/82 cm. wide, pieces of 18.30 meters each, price \$6.20 per piece.

* * * Cotton tablecloth, 150 cm. wide, price 97 cents per meter.

* * * A cotton table napkin, 59 cm. square, price \$2 per dozen.

* * * Gray domestics, 84 cm. wide, price 35 cents per meter.

(b) *Printed, checked, or dyed piece goods.*—In regard to the samples which I am forwarding under this heading it should be borne in mind that patterns and assortments where given show, unless otherwise stated, what has been sold, not necessarily what would be suitable for fresh shipments. Fashions are as capricious here as in Europe, so that not only do many patterns which were good one season become unsalable the next, but one kind of goods, which were salable one season may be, and often are, replaced by a totally different class of fabric the next.

Colored goods of all kinds are not separated from white and gray goods in the statistics.

In some lines, e. g., woven trouserings, etc., German goods have for years had the largest sale, but now it is evident on all hands that the manufactures which are coming to the front in most lines are the Italians; their colors are bright and lasting; their goods are almost always made of grandrilled yarn; they are asserted to be at the front in the matter of original designs for buyers from this market to choose from, and if a buyer wants a particular pattern in wove goods they have a number of handlooms and colors at their offices, and are prepared to make a sample and quote for it at short notice. The vast numbers of their countrymen in this Republic know and appreciate the goods, so much so that some Italians are suspected of selling Manchester trouserings as Italian; and, finally, they have the advantage of rapid and direct communication from Genoa at freights about one-half those from the ports of Northern Europe, e. g., 25 lire per cubic meter was recently paid against 45s. per 40 cubic feet from Liverpool, and now I am told that rates are 30 lire against 52s. 6d.

In white ground prints British goods still hold their own, but in black ground prints with raised back, and printed flannelets, German and Italian goods prevail. I forward samples, as follows:

* * * Italian cretona indigo, 114 cm. wide, m. o. p. (m. o. pasta) mark, cost 20 to 22 cents gold. This article has a large sale in the provinces.

* * * Alsatian blue prints, 100 cm. wide, 35.2 kilos per 100 meters, cost 6½d. per yard, packed f. o. b. Hamburg.

* * * Alsatian blue prints, 27 cm. wide, 16.2 kilos per 100 meters, cost 3½d. per yard, packed f. o. b. Hamburg.

* * * German prints with raised back, 75 to 76 cm. wide, 20 kilos per 100 meters, cost 0.35 marks per meter, packed f. o. b. Hamburg. Purchase eighteen months old.

* * * Italian (? German imitation) prints, with raised back, 69 to 70 cm. wide, sold here at 11 cents gold per meter.

* * * Italian (? German imitation) prints, raised back, 69 to 70 cm. wide, sold here at 11 cents gold per meter.

* * * German prints, with raised backs, 63 to 64 cm. wide, cost 0.22½ marks per meter, less 2 to 3 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * German prints, with raised back, 72 cm. wide, cost 0.35 marks per meter, less 2 to 3 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * German printed flannelets, cost 0.36 marks per meter, less 2 to 3 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg.

The following are samples of German goods offered here through England, in pence per yard, less 4 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg or Antwerp:

	Cost per yard.	Weight per 33 yards.
	Pence.	Lbs. Oz.
27½ inches wide	4½	8 13
Do.....	3½	7 11
Do.....	3½	6 10
26½ inches wide	3½	6 0
31½ inches wide	4½	9 15

American prints are also sold here to some extent, but, although they are nice goods, they are not a very serious factor so far in regular

business, owing to manufacturers not being prepared to supply them according to a given assortment of patterns, so that importers here have to buy on the assortments offered and in large lots, while they may depress prices at times. I forward samples as follows:

* * * American prints, 25 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide, cost 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per yard, less 2 per cent or ninety days, packed f. o. b., New York: 36 designs—40 to 50 pieces in each case—unevenly assorted.

* * * American printed cretonnes, 25 $\frac{1}{4}$ inches wide, cost 4 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per yard, less 2 per cent or ninety days, packed f. o. b., New York: 35 designs—40 to 50 pieces in each—unevenly assorted.

Printed trouserings are but a small trade.

Of dyed dress goods I send the following samples:

* * * Black twills, Swiss, about 70 cm. wide, 30 pieces per case, 0.21 $\frac{1}{2}$ marks per meter, less 2 to 3 per cent, packed f. o. b., Genoa. Observe color, considered much superior to English ("raton") color.

* * * Black twills, Italian, 130 cm. wide, 35 kilos per 100 meters, sold here at 35 cents, gold, per meter.

* * * Italian diagonals, 130 cm. wide, sold here at 26 cents, gold, per meter (weight about 26 to 27 kilos per 100 meters).

* * * Cloth for linings, 87 cm. wide, made at local factory already referred to, price 35 cents per meter.

Wove colored goods.—The largest part of the trade in trouserings and colored wove flannelettes is Italian or German, and if this is not so already in the case of Oxfords, checks, tickings, etc., it is rapidly becoming so. I forward samples of trouserings as follows (wove cotton trouserings):

* * * Italian, 64 to 65 cm. wide, 140 grams per meter, francs 0.37 per meter placed in Buenos Ayres custom-house.

* * * Italian, 64 to 65 cm. wide, 155 grams per meter, francs 0.57 per meter placed in Buenos Ayres custom-house.

* * *. Italian, 64 to 65 cm. wide, 170 grams per meter, francs 0.53 per meter placed in Buenos Ayres custom-house.

* * * Italian, 64 to 65 cm. wide, 240 grams per meter, francs 0.61 per meter placed in Buenos Ayres custom-house.

* * * Italian, 64 to 65 cm. wide, 210 grams per meter, francs 0.53 per meter placed in Genoa, packing, etc., included.

* * * Italian, 64 to 65 cm. wide, 266 grams per meter, francs 0.68 per meter placed in Genoa, packing, etc., included. (N. B.—Two last purchases payable sixty days after arrival, about. First four were offers.)

* * * German, 64 cm. wide, 290 grams per meter, marks 0.60 per meter placed in Hamburg, Bremen, or Antwerp, packing, etc., included.

* * * Shows assortment in similar goods, the samples marked in red being the most suitable styles.

* * * German, 64 cm. wide, 300 grams per meter, marks 0.63 per meter placed in Hamburg, Bremen, or Antwerp, packing included.

* * * German goods, 65 cm. wide, 350 kilos,¹ cost marks 0.59 per meter packed f. o. b., Hamburg.

* * * Italian (? German) goods, 65 and 66 cm. wide, sold here 20 cents, gold; per meter.

* * * German trouserings, 132 and 133 cm. wide, cost marks 0.85, less 2 and 3 per cent discount, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * German trouserings, 130 cm. wide, cost marks 0.85, less 2 and 3 per cent discount, packed, placed in Hamburg.

¹ So in original. Qy., 350 grams per meter†

* * * Italian trouserings, 64 cm. wide ("Brin Limon"), sold here at 22 cents, gold, per meter, weight about 19 or 20 kilos per 100 meters.

* * * Italian trouserings, 65 cm. wide ("Fustañó"), cost lira 0.55, less 4 per cent discount, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Italian trouserings, 129 cm. wide, cost lira 1, less 4 per cent, packed and placed in Genoa, 28 kilos per 100 meters.

* * * German trouserings, 63 cm. wide, cost marks 0.50 per meter, less 6 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * Italian cords, 67 cm. wide, cost 7½d. per yard, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Trouserings, made at local factory heretofore referred to, 69 cm. wide, price 63 cents per meter.

Of colored wove flannelettes I send the following samples:

J. 200. Italian twilled, 138 and 140 cm. wide, 330 grams per meter, francs 0.90, less 2 per cent, placed in Genoa, packing, etc., included, remittance on receipt of goods.

J. 201. Italian, 138 and 140 cm. wide, 245 grams per meter, francs 0.70, less 2 per cent, placed in Genoa, packing, etc., included, remittance on receipt of goods.

J. 202. German, 138 and 140 cm. wide, 310 grams per meter, marks 0.79, less 4 per cent and 2 per cent, placed in Hamburg, packing, etc., included.

J. 203. German, 138 and 140 cm. wide, 325 grams per meter, marks 0.88, less 4 per cent and 2 per cent, placed in Hamburg, packing, etc., included.

[N. B.—Except J.202 the above merely show quality; not less than 250 pieces of one pattern are sold; usually there is a complete assortment in each case, one piece of each pattern.]

* * * Italian goods, 130 and 132 cm. wide, sold here at 26 cents, gold, per meter.

* * * Italian goods, 136 and 138 cm. wide, sold here at 28 cents, gold, per meter.

* * * Italian goods, 70 and 71 cm. wide, sold here at 13½ cents, gold, per meter.

* * * Italian goods, about 132 cm. wide, 30 pieces in case, each a design, cost lira 0.85 per meter, packed f. o. b., Genoa.

* * * Italian goods, 70 cm. wide, cost lira 0.52 per meter, packed, f. o. b., Genoa.

* * * German goods, 71 cm. wide, cost marks 0.32½ per meter, packed, placed in Hamburg, 20 pieces in case, each a design.

* * * Italian goods, 68 and 70 cm. wide, cost lira 0.47 per meter, less 2 per cent, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Italian goods, 68 cm. wide, cost lira 0.40 per meter, less 2 per cent, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Italian goods, 70 cm. wide, cost about lira 0.45 per meter, less 2 per cent, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Locally made goods (at the factory heretofore referred to), 136 cm. wide, price \$1.10 per meter.

Of checks, tickings, dress goods, etc., I send the following samples:

* * * Italian († German) checks ("Tela Florida,") 69 cm. wide, sold here at 12½ cents, gold, per meter.

* * * Italian cottonades, 114 and 116 cm. wide, cost lira 0.75, less 4 per cent, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Italian checks, 65 and 66 cm. wide, sold here at 16 cents, gold, per meter, about 16 kilos per 100 meters.

* * * Red Italian checks, about 68 cm. wide, cost lira 0.39 per meter, less 2 per cent, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Italian checks ("Tela Florida"), 68 cm. wide, cost lira 0.39 per meter, less 2 per cent, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Italian dress goods (with trifling silk admixture), 60 cm. wide, in 12 similar designs, cost 4½d. per yard, packed, placed in Genoa.

* * * Italian cottonades, 100 cm. wide, in 12 or more similar designs, cost 5½d. per yard, packed, placed in Genoa.

Cotton velveteens are now coming from the Continent. I forward a sample of German goods, * * * 44½ cm. wide, assorted in a number of colors, which cost francs 0.92½, less 5 and 2 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg or Antwerp.

Velveteen cords are but a trifling trade. Goods come from England.

(c) *Stockings and socks* are chiefly made in the country. I forward samples, as follows, viz:

* * * A pair of men's socks (pattern 751), price, \$3 per dozen.

* * * A pair of men's socks (pattern 765), price, \$3.40 per dozen.

* * * A pair of women's stockings (pattern 147), price, \$3.65 per dozen.

* * * A pair of women's stockings (pattern 630), price, \$3.95 per dozen.

The great bulk of the imports are German, generally of light, and especially children's, makes, which do not pay so well to make here. I forward samples, as follows:

* * * A pair of German socks, costing marks 2.40 per dozen, less 4 and 2 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * A pair of German children's stockings, No. 6, which cost marks 1.80 per dozen, less 2 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg. The assortment of sizes most sold is 6, 7, and 8, prices rising mark 0.20 each size, those in the shipment from which sample is taken being marks 2 for No. 7, and marks 2.20 for No. 8.

(d) *Thread for sewing*.—In this article the trade is practically all English.

I hear a report that machinery is being imported to spin sewing thread in the country. There would seem to be a fair margin for this industry, inasmuch as raw cotton pays a duty of 3½ per cent on a valuation of 27 cents per kilo, against a duty of 27 per cent on a valuation of 10 cents per 1,000 meters on thread in spools.

(e) *Lace and patent net*.—Torchon cordonné, which all comes from Germany, and embroidered net, the net of which is made in Nottingham, but bought and embroidered by Germany, have the largest sale. I forward samples as follows, viz:

* * * Barmen torchons, packed 40 pieces of 10 yards each, in a box, goods of large consumption, cost 10 marks per box net, packed, placed in Antwerp.

* * * Barmen torchons, packed 40 pieces of 10 yards each, in a box, cost 32 marks per box, net, packed, placed in Antwerp.

* * * Planen lace (Nottingham net), packed 15 pieces of 10 yards each, in a box, price 34s. per box, less 15 per cent, packed, placed in Antwerp.

"Imitation linens" all come from England, but Germany is now trying to make them, and in due time will doubtless succeed. In embroideries the Swiss manufacturers compete strongly with the English. I forward a sample of Swiss goods: * * *

* * * St. Gall embroideries, packed 40 pieces of 3 aunes each, in a box, which cost 1½d. per yard, packed, placed in Genoa.

(f) *Hosiery and small wares*.—The great bulk of the trade in undershirts is supplied by local manufacturers; in fact, the industry would

seem to have been rather overdone, and it is asserted that there are two large factories here, one of them being the one already referred to, which are capable of supplying the demand between them. I forward samples of local manufacture as follows, viz:

- * * * A plain undershirt (pattern 168), price \$8.50 per dozen.
- * * * A striped undershirt (pattern 648), price \$9 per dozen.
- * * * A striped black undershirt (pattern 764), price \$13 per dozen.
- * * * A striped undershirt (pattern 666), price \$8.50 per dozen.

It should be mentioned that, notwithstanding the low prices at sales by auction, induced by the oversupply, shirts made up in the country from colored flannelets are commonly preferred by workmen to woven goods.

Woven drawers are an article of very small consumption.

Cotton quilts are made in the country, but there is also some importation, chiefly from Germany.

Cotton blankets come in large quantities from the Continent. I forward a sample * * * of a German blanket, which comes assorted in two colors of stripes, namely, red and blue, costing—

1.95 marks each for the 130 by 180 cm. size, 2.50 marks each for the 150 by 200 cm. size, 3.40 marks each for the 180 by 230 cm. size, less 2 to 3 per cent, packed in Hamburg.

The great bulk of the trade in cotton handkerchiefs, which is in the ordinary qualities, is British, but higher class goods come from the Continent, Austria and Italy producing some excellent work. Some are made at the local factory heretofore referred to. I forward a sample of these goods * * * which is a handkerchief for wearing on the head (a common custom), 89 cm. square, price \$4.85 per dozen.

Earthen and china ware, including manufactures of clay.—German and Dutch wares compete seriously with British in common earthenware, being considered better and more carefully finished; in fact, the great bulk of that trade appears to be in the makes of those countries, but semiporcelain and stone china are all British. In porcelain, again, the trade is almost entirely German, Dutch, and French.

Earthenware for construction purposes, such as closets, sinks, sewer pipes, etc., is all British.

Stone filters are little used, the little "Pasteur" metal-cased filter, which can be fastened on a water tap, is of universal use, and the smallest size, which can give 25 liters of water in a day, is sold for \$5 currency.

Earthenware vessels generally, for spirit merchants, brewers, oil merchants, jam makers, etc., do not appear to be used to any large extent; those which come in are mostly British, but I have seen table water bottles from Germany. Some of the breweries bottle porter in stone, but the bottles are old Guinness's bottles. Teapots, also electric insulators, are mostly British, and spittoons mostly German.

The import trade is all in the hands of dealers, each of whom makes the best terms he can as to credit in buying from the European manufacturers. Long credits up to six months or so have to be given to the best men, and I am not informed that continental makers are any easier in their terms than British.

Freights may have favored the former in the past, but except by occasional outside steamers, not of late. I have seen recent invoices of about the same date, showing 12.50 marks per cubic meter from Hamburg, against 17s. 6d. per 40 cubic feet, plus 10 per cent, from Liverpool; but in the former case the date was the end of June, and

in the latter the beginning of July, which probably accounts for the difference, a new combination between North European and English lines having taken effect, I understand, from 1st of latter month.

What is asserted to be a serious impediment to the English trade is the high packing charges; also the railway freight to ports in some instances. Packing charges are frequently not made on the Continent, prices being "packed (place in the port)," and when they are made they are quite small, something like one-third of the British. The high British packing charges have the natural tendency to cause the largest quantity to be put into a package of a given cost, with the result that sixty dozen, for example, come in a package instead of fifty dozen, the more usual number from the Continent, and the package is thus less easy to handle, especially if it has to go up country here. "Shipping expenses, bill of lading, etc.," are a British charge which does not appear in continental invoices, and annoy buyers even when not forming an important percentage; in the invoice referred to above they came to something like 4 per cent.

Duties are levied per dozen, so that the question of weight does not tell against England here as it does in some other countries. The tariff, as will be noticed, enumerates a number of articles, fixing two valuations upon each, one being for common earthenware (plain and colored of all kinds) and the other for white porcelain; it then states that the duties on white stoneware (which includes semiporcelain) are 35 per cent above those fixed for earthenware, and on painted, decorated, or gilded stoneware 60 per cent above those fixed for earthenware; and finally, that the duties on painted, decorated or gilded porcelain are 80 per cent above those fixed for white porcelain.

French shapes prevail in all cases, whether it be in dinner ware, toilet ware, with the high water jug, or what not; the Germans imitate in earthenware the shapes used in French porcelain. The English shapes, some say, are so few and have been in existence so long that they can be recognized at once.

In colored ware the most salable, because the cheapest, is that printed over glaze (carcomania), and the most favorite decorations are the better-known flowers in natural colors.

Some of the trade in colored porcelain is done by importing in the white and having the painting done here by some Limoges workmen, whose charge for painting admits of a considerable margin, at least on small lots, say up to fifty dozen or so, and the plan has the advantage of enabling the dealer to arrange for just what he wants and of the qualities that he requires from hand to mouth.

I forward samples which may give some idea of the kind of continental ware which comes to this market, viz:

No. 1 is a c.c. plate, and No. 1b ditto soup plate, which cost marks 0.80 per dozen, less 2 per cent, packed and placed in Antwerp.

No. 2 are three painted cups of different shapes, with their corresponding saucers (not figured, it will be noticed), which cost marks 1½ per dozen, less 7½ and 2 per cent, packed and placed in Hamburg.

No. 3 is a porcelain cup and saucer imported in the white and painted here at a cost of \$1.50 currency, say 55 cents gold per dozen, whose first cost was marks 1.50 per dozen, less 2 per cent, packed and placed in Hamburg.

No. 4 is a colored bowl, the smallest size, which cost francs 0.80 per dozen, less 15 and 2 per cent, packed and placed in Antwerp.

No. 5 is also a (differently) colored bowl of the next size, which cost 1 franc per dozen, less 15 and 2 per cent, packed and placed in Antwerp.

No. 6 is a mug, the smallest of three sizes, of which the largest is 10 cm. high and wide in proportion, which cost 11 francs per hundred, less 10 and 2 per cent, packed and placed in Antwerp. These mugs come in crates or baskets, but the other goods usually come in skeleton cases.

Enameled iron has taken the place of common earthenware, especially in plates, dishes, chambers, bowls, and mugs, to a considerable extent; in the country, I am told, to the extent of as much as 70 per cent and in town perhaps 20 per cent.

Furniture, cabinet, and upholstery wares.—Owing to the high tariff, the importation of furniture is of comparatively small importance, and consists largely of cheap Vienna and American chairs.

The native industry is an extensive one; it is mostly veneer work which is produced, and very little of it high class, the great majority being quite the contrary.

Curtains and furniture stuffs, except silk plush, come chiefly from France in the case of the better qualities, costing, say, 4 francs per meter upward, and from France and Germany in the case of the lower qualities. Italy is competing in bands and tassels. Only a small percentage of this trade appears to be British, owing to the prices of British manufacturers being too high, and the demand running almost entirely on French patterns and styles.

Glue for veneering is now made here; it used to come from France and Germany.

GLASS.

(a) *Plate, rough or silvered.*—Plain glass of all kinds for structural purposes, windows, doors, etc., comes almost all from Belgium; looking-glasses from Germany and France. The latter are also prepared here from imported glass.

(b) *Flint glass.*—The bulk of the import is from the Continent, chiefly from Belgium, but common glassware is largely made here. The local makers do best in bulky articles, which, coming from abroad, are subject to heavy freight—e. g., glass sample bottles, little glass barrels, candlesticks, etc.—but do not confine themselves to these. They produce, for example, a decanter to sell at \$3 currency per dozen, and tumblers to cost 60 cents currency, which can not be laid down, duty paid, under 40 cents gold. Their work is reported defective as to standing heat, but yet they are able to make and sell lamp chimneys.

(c) *Common bottles* are made in the country, and there is considerable import from the Continent.

(d) *Of other sorts.*—Lamp ware, of glass and porcelain, or in which these materials predominate, is chiefly continental (German, Belgian, and Italian), but in all metal the United States are reported to do the best. As regards packing of glass and porcelain, which is in casks, the English makers' packing is, I am informed, not sufficiently careful; moreover they use old casks of odd sizes, which give a bad impression, and makes the importer think more of breakages. Casks from others come as they should, of one size, made (to all appearance) for the purpose.

Hardware and cutlery.—In cast-iron hollow ware the tinned ware comes from England; the enameled ware comes mostly from Germany, but this is an article not much liked by importers, owing to the heavy claims for crackage, and the business in it is insignificant.

In wrought-iron hollow ware the bulk of the trade is in German and French goods. There is a large sale, both of retinned and enameled

ware, and the demand seems to oscillate between the two. I forward a sample—

* * * of a French retinned kettle of a quality which cost as follows:

	France.
1 liter	0. 46
1½ liters 63
2 liters 73
3 liters 85
4 liters	1. 05

Less 5, 2, and 2 per cent packed f. o. b. Antwerp. It is to be noted that these goods are "upnumbered;" that is, they are marked of rather greater capacity than they really are.

The United States gray enameled ware holds its own, but the trade in this description is not large. I understand that the United States are now trying to compete with the Continent in the regular white-white and blue-white ware; English manufacturers do not appear able to compete, and practically have not done so for years. I forward a sample—

* * * of a German 20-centimeter enameled stew pan of a quality which costs as follows:

	France.
16-centimeter.....per dozen..	6. 30
18-centimeter.....do....	7. 45
20-centimeter.....do....	8. 75
22-centimeter.....do....	11. 25
24-centimeter (roll edge).....do....	13. 30
26-centimeter (roll edge).....do....	16. 25
28-centimeter (roll edge).....do....	19. 20
30-centimeter (roll edge).....do....	23. 30
20-centimeter (raw edge).....do....	10. 80
22-centimeter (raw edge).....do....	13. 45
24-centimeter (raw edge).....do....	16. 00
26-centimeter (raw edge).....do....	18. 75
28-centimeter (raw edge).....do....	21. 70
30-centimeter (raw edge).....do....	25. 60

All less 2 and 5 per cent, packed f. o. b. Hamburg.

These are the prices of a large contract made over a year ago. It is doubtful if it could be repeated to-day on the same terms.

Wrought-iron enameled baths (for fixtures) come lightest and best from the United States.

Enameled ware is now being made in this country. I visited the factory, which began originally in a small way and came to grief. It is now in strong hands. Its output at present is about 1,000 pieces per diem, counting a pot and cover as one piece, and the managers hope to work up to 2,000 per diem, or, say, 50,000 dozens per annum.

They have two principal presses, German, one weighing about 15 tons, and they make their own dies, i. e., they have them founded for them, and finish them themselves. They employ about 100 hands at present.

The soft steel plate all comes from England, ready cut in disks for the various sizes.

I forward a sample * * * of a 16 cm., pot and cover which is sold at \$8.50 currency a dozen, or assorted 16 to 26 cm., packed in cases of 6 dozen, at \$13.50 per dozen; or assorted, 20 to 30 cm., at \$18.50 per dozen. The price of a 16 cm. saucepan, with long handle and cover with similar handle, is \$7.25.

Locks for doors, trunks, etc., of ordinary quality, come exclusively from Germany, and middling to fine makes from Germany and France. Padlocks come chiefly from England. Door locks of good quality are made here.

Cutlery.—Table knives and forks are chiefly German and French. I forward samples of a dessert knife and dinner fork * * * of the most favorite mark. These are French goods. I can not get the exact cost, but I understand makers have a sliding scale for quantity taken in a year, which, in the case of large orders, which some dealers here combine to give, makes the cost very low.

These goods are imitated in Germany, but the sale of the imitation is not so large as that of the genuine article.

German nickel-handled knives and forks, like samples I forward, * * * have also a large sale, likewise the nickel-steel spoons. Cost is about 2 marks per dozen for the knives, and 1.75 marks per dozen for the forks, packed f. o. b. Hamburg, less 5 per cent.

In white metal handled knives and white metal forks and spoons the Austrian (Berndorf) ware commands the great bulk of the trade.

Pocket cutlery is almost exclusively German. This trade is one of exceptionally close competition and has become most intricate.

Hats.—Wool and felt hats are largely made in the country, and the import, chiefly continental as regards wool and chiefly English as regards felt, is a comparatively small matter. I forward samples as follows:

* * * A very salable locally made woolen hat sold wholesale at \$17 currency per dozen.

* * * A locally made felt hat of the best quality; wholesale price commonly \$7.50 each, but the makers of this hat sell at \$6.50.

* * * A locally made felt hat of second quality; wholesale price \$6.25 each. * * * The former quality of felt hat has a larger sale than the poorer quality, but soft wool hats are sold in far greater quantities than hard felt.

Straw hats, made here from straw imported chiefly from England, are sold in large quantities, and the imports, the bulk of which is from the Continent, are quite of minor importance. There is also an Italian hat made out of wood shaving which has a considerable sale.

Implements and tools of industry.—Picks, spades, shovels, and adzes come in largest quantities from the United States. The figures for four years in tons of 1,000 kilos are as follows:

Country.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
United Kingdom	88	77	85	196
United States	254	228	152	332
Germany	1	4	3	28

I forward the following samples:

* * * An American pick head of good quality (which in this case sells more freely than poor), costing, according to size, for 1 inch, \$6.25 per dozen; 2½ to 3 inches, \$7.20 per dozen; 4 inches, \$8.55 less 2 per cent, plus 2 cents packing per case of one dozen, f. o. b. New York; at present these might be bought some 7½ per cent cheaper. These goods are frequently imported of lighter weight, and thus cost less as proportion, but in every case they are sold on the mark.

* * * An American "Excelsior" No. 3 shovel of ordinary quality (which in this article has the exclusive sale), costing \$2.98 per dozen, less 2 per cent f. o. b. New York.

Scythe blades are much less used than formerly, having been superseded by machine mowers and weed cutters which come from the United States; the scythe blades are mostly French.

Augers, gimlets, chisels, axes, and now files, are chiefly English, but plane blades and saw blades (for mounting here) are French, and must have the French mark (Peugeot's). In two-handed crosscut saws the English are preferred, but there is also a considerable sale of German saws of this kind of poor quality and much cheaper; whilst carpenters' handled saws come from the United States.

Coach wrenches of the shape of the sample I forward * * * come from the United States. This quality, shown by sample, costs for the sizes named, which are the most in use, \$11.50 for 10-inch and \$13.50 for 12½-inch per dozen, f. o. b. New York.* All-iron wrenches come cheapest from Germany and France.

Carpenters' braces come cheapest from the United States. I forward a sample * * * of a nicked carpenter's brace, present price about \$3.25 per dozen, less 2 per cent, f. o. b. New York.

The plain, polished brace, which has a larger sale than the nicked, costs about \$2 per dozen, same terms.

Pincers are mostly French and German. I forward a sample * * * of a pair of French pincers of a quality which cost for—

	Francs.
7-inch.....per dozen...	7.50
8-inch.....do.....	8.50
9-inch.....do.....	10.50
10-inch.....do.....	13.50
11-inch.....do.....	16.00
12-inch.....do.....	20.00

less 5 per cent, f. o. b. Antwerp.

Hand pumps.—Ordinary single-action well pumps are American; also the greater part of the double-action pumps. A common kind of semi-rotary pump has been coming freely of late from Germany.

Dutch stoves are made locally.

Currycombs are exclusively of German import. I forward a sample * * * which cost 1.10 marks, less 5 per cent, per dozen, packed, f. o. b. Hamburg.

Kitchen bellows come largely from France, but blacksmiths' are English.

Coffee mills are of French (Peugeot's) make.

LEATHER.

(a) *Unwrought.*—Tanning is a very large industry in the country, and the preparation of leather has attained to a considerable degree of perfection. Nevertheless a certain amount of waxed calf, kid calf, patent leather, and kid are still imported, principally from France. Sole leather is entirely produced in the country.

(b) *Wrought, boots and shoes.*—With the exception of a certain amount of fine work, these articles are produced entirely in the country, and even Switzerland is unable to compete with the local manufacture. The latter is largely done on the farming-out system. There is a certain number of regular factories, but probably not more than two or three of them, I am informed, are really up to date in their machinery and methods.

(c) *Wrought, of other kinds.*—The import of such is of comparatively small value, being limited to a certain amount of leather cases, leather gloves, trunks, etc., by far the larger proportion of which come from the Continent.

(d) *Saddlery and harness.*—With the exception of quite a trifling amount of high-class goods, everything is made in the country.

LINEN AND JUTE YARN.

(a) Linen yarn is imported to only a small extent and chiefly from Belgium.

(b) Jute yarn comes from England and is chiefly used for making alparagatas, or canvas shoes, with jute-braid soles.

LINEN AND JUTE MANUFACTURES.

1. LINEN MANUFACTURES.—(a) White or plain Belgian sheets, which are made from twisted yarn, are preferred, and English linen for shirt fronts. Mixed fabrics for tablecloths are of considerable sale, and come from Belgium. I forward a sample, * * * width 138 and 140 cm., length of pieces, 40 meters; and a further sample * * * of 156 and 160 cm. width. The latter costs francs .90, packed and placed in Antwerp, and other widths in proportion.

(b) *Printed, checked, or dyed.*—Tickings of mixed materials come also from Belgium. I forward a sample (14 cuttings), * * * width 160 cm., which costs francs .96 per meter, packed and placed in Antwerp. These goods usually come assorted, 6 pieces gray stripe, 3 red, and 3 blue.

(c) *Sailcloth and sails.*—Canvas is largely used for making covers for piles of wheat in the country, also for scissor beds, which are used much in the provinces. Ordinary English canvas and American cotton canvas are the articles of the largest consumption, but Italian canvas is coming into favor as being rather cheaper than English. I forward samples, as follows:

* * * Italian canvas, 91 cm. wide, sold in Buenos Ayres at \$12.50 per piece of 32 meters.

* * * Italian canvas, 36 inches wide (36-yard pieces, 20 pieces in a bale), which costs 1.20 francs per piece, c. i. f., Buenos Ayres.

Cotton canvas and duck, in imitation of the American, are made to some extent in the country. The packing of the American canvas in small bales, sometimes of only two pieces in each, without hoops, is considered very suitable, as are also the small hooped bales of six pieces, which are less liable to damage than the very heavy European bales.

The words "don't use hooks," on English and American bales are, unfortunately, not attended to, if for no other reason than that they are not understood at this end.

(d) *Thread* for sewing, used by bootmakers, comes chiefly from Belgium.

(e) *Of other sorts.*—Linen towels are a small import, chiefly from Belgium and Italy; some are also made in the country.

2. JUTE MANUFACTURES.—Hessians have been referred to under the heading of bags and sacks.

I have seen some very tasteful German imitations of Smyrna carpets and rugs, made all from jute, which proved suitable at first, but are not expected to remain in favor.

MACHINERY.

(a) *Steam engines.*—The railway companies being, as heretofore mentioned, almost all English, are naturally inclined to import locomotives, like other rolling stock, from England, and, as a rule, do so. I have heard of considerable orders having gone to the United States, not on the ground of superiority, or greater suitability to the country (whatever might have been the case formerly in this respect), but because

British makers are unable to give early delivery, and the leading American makers have influential and active agents on the spot. Formerly, no doubt, for newly-made and poorly-ballasted lines the United States made the most suitable engines, but the experience of the English companies here has proved that equally suitable engines can be made in England; and I was informed by the chief superintendent of the Government lines (see under heading "Carriages and wagons") that they had obtained better engines for their narrow-gauge lines from a British maker than from the United States.

(b) *Of other sorts.*—In agricultural machinery such as plows, reapers, shellers and sowers, the United States seem now to do the biggest share of the trade—something like 90 per cent, I am assured. The British makers, as a rule, produce too heavy and expensive a machine. They are doubtless handicapped, to some extent, owing to the want of equal facilities for employing the light woodwork which enters so much into American machines.

The bulk of the electric light plant here, and practically all the electric traction machinery, is from the United States.

Small electric motors and fittings, too, are chiefly American. The American motor is neater, lighter, and cheaper. For example, I have seen a 3-horsepower American motor with a hook at the top for lifting it about, which was certainly a neater and less cumbersome machine than an English 2-horsepower one which was shown me. The English motor is often capable of working far above its indicated power, or, say, the power which has been indented for, but this is not wanted, and only adds to the cost. English makers, too, have given dissatisfaction in their careless packing of delicate machinery, e. g., volt meters, which arrive broken, a thing which never happens when they come from the United States.

The hold which American electric machinery has obtained upon this market is sometimes attributed to its having been introduced in a more energetic and businesslike manner, and there may be a good deal in this, but I am inclined to think, from what I have learned, that its perfection, as a rule, for doing its work, combined with the neatness and lightness of the American machinery, is what has kept it to the front. Germany machinery—frequently a poor and cheap copy of the American—finds a market, and even Italian work is now coming.

The American electric machinery is looked upon as the most advanced. The English, I am told, have not kept pace with the American improvements and new inventions, whilst the Germans have carefully watched and promptly copied the American.

Bicycles.—United States makes predominate. One make has a sale of some 2,000 machines annually, the market for which has been obtained by good advertising and push on the part of the importers, who are content with moderate profits—at first none at all.

In sewing machines the German "Singer" is stated to be the cheapest in the market, and can be bought here for \$12 gold. The following figures showing the number of machines dispatched from the custom-house may be of interest:

Country.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Number.</i>	<i>Number.</i>
United Kingdom	542	970	598	2,661
United States	5,564	5,173	4,769	4,969
Germany	10,767	7,778	7,029	11,358
Belgium	858	353	442	1,030

METALS.

1. IRON. (a) *Old*, for remanufacturing, is not imported. An export duty of \$5 per ton of 1,000 kilos prevents it from leaving the country, and constitutes it the basis of local production of bar iron, imports of which pay a duty of 6 per cent on a valuation of 4 cents per kilo.

(b) *Pig iron* is of comparatively limited use. In the statistics it is not separated from bar, rod, etc., but I understand that the bulk of it is English, and the whole import probably does not exceed some 2,000 tons per annum. This would be much larger were it not for the fact that the railways are gradually replacing their old cast-iron "pot" sleepers with sleepers of native "quebracho" wood, and the former are readily bought by the local founders, for whom this source of supply is likely to continue for a considerable time, I understand. The only foundry work of importance, beyond the casting of refts, etc., for machinery in the local factories, is that of cast-iron columns for building purposes.

(c and f.) *Bar, angle, bolt, rod, and sheet (not galvanized) iron, or soft steel*.—The trade in these appears to have been divided, roughly speaking, in recent years between England and Belgium, but the chief new competitor is expected by some to be the United States.

I forward a sample * * * of a piece of bar iron, $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch square, which costs, for an assortment of sizes from about $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch square upward, \$107.50, f. o. b. New York (no discount).

A certain amount of bar iron is now also being made in the country.

Boiler plates come from England and Belgium, as also do soft steel plates generally. It is, however, to be noted that just now common iron plates and T iron have been bought from the United States, England being unable to compete in price.

Hoop iron has hitherto all come from England, but some is now beginning to be imported from the United States.

Galvanized sheets, both corrugated for roofing, etc., and plain for making various vessels, etc., come almost entirely from England, although there has been some import from the United States. The figures, in tons of 1,000 kilos, may be of interest.

Country.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
United Kingdom	10, 735	15, 540	16, 290	22, 609
Germany	17	1	155	508
United States.....	Nil.	45	397	1, 545
Belgium	75	434	1, 175	241

(d) *Railroad of all sorts*.—Steel rails, which are free from all duty when new (old rails pay 27 per cent on a valuation of 2 cents per kilo) have hitherto come chiefly from the United Kingdom. In rails for tramways, however, a change is taking place. The 9-inch deep rail, such as is commonly used in the United States, has been found to suit the pavement here best, and will undoubtedly be adopted in place of the 6-inch deep rail hitherto in use. The management of a new electric street-car line tried hard some time since to have this 9-inch rail made in England, but in vain; makers had not made it before and did not want to incur the expense of the necessary new rollers. Now all the tramways will require this rail, and they will get it from the United States.

(e) *Wire*.—The fencing wire (in which No. 8 is mostly used now, also No. 9) comes chiefly from the Continent, although recently some of the

business appears to be returning to England. The figures for four years (in tons of 1,000 kilos) are:

	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
BLACK.				
United Kingdom	<i>Tons.</i> 2, 186	<i>Tons.</i> 1, 880	<i>Tons.</i> 2, 255	<i>Tons.</i> 4, 570
Germany	6, 891	9, 186	9, 771	10, 777
Belgium	12, 095	16, 729	8, 334	7, 907
GALVANIZED, INCLUDING BARBED.				
United Kingdom	443	980	822	3, 332
Germany	1, 300	2, 292	1, 706	6, 883
Belgium	1, 705	2, 382	4, 068	4, 113
United States	1	12	775	2, 102

I forward a sample of a piece of United States barbed wire, * * * two-ply, four barbs $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches apart, which cost \$170¹ per 100 pounds, f. o. b. New York, less 2 per cent.

Finer wire, used in the country principally for thatching and tying purposes, is chiefly of local manufacture, but is also imported a little. I forward a sample * * * of German No. 20, galvanized. This wire is packed in casks of 500 pounds each, assorted, No. 16, 250 pounds; No. 18, 150 pounds; No. 20, 100 pounds, and costs £3 1s. per cask, less 3 per cent.

Galvanized wire netting, used for henhouses, etc., comes almost entirely from the Continent. I forward a sample, * * * a piece of German netting, $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch mesh, which costs, in pieces of 50 varas long by 1 vara wide, for $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, 1, $1\frac{1}{4}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{3}{4}$, 2, per piece, 35s. 8d., 18s. 10d., 15s. 6d., 14s. 2d., 12s. 4d., 11s. 4d., 9s. 5d., less 55 and 5 per cent, f. o. b., and 2s. 6d. allowed for delivery in Bremen. This contract, I am informed, could be repeated to-day probably 15 per cent cheaper.

Coarse wire netting, in diamond-shaped meshes, used for inclosing gardens, paddocks, etc., is made in the country. I forward a sample * * * of such netting, price 68 cents per square meter, less 5 per cent for cash in thirty days, as per list of prices herewith.² It may be noted that wire pays 6 per cent on 5 cents per kilo for black and 6 cents for galvanized up to No. 14, and 27 per cent on 8 cents per kilo for black and 14 cents per kilo for galvanized from No. 15 up, against 27 per cent on 35 cents per kilo for black and 15 cents per kilo for galvanized netting. I understand that machinery is being imported to make the finer netting * * * in the country also, but hitherto this netting has been imported. Needless to say the local manufacturer has the great advantage, as regards the large diamond mesh, of being able to supply netting of any size mesh, gauge, and width that may be needed at comparatively short notice.

Wire cloth is also of continental manufacture. I forward a sample * * * of a piece of No. 20 German cloth which costs 0.06 marks per square meter, less 2 per cent, packed f. o. b. Hamburg, and would probably cost somewhat less now. The widths run from 55 to 115 cm. and numbers from 4 to 26; length of pieces 16 varas; colors green, blue, black, and now also fancy patterns. Prices vary with color (green and blue are the same, and black cheaper) and number.

(g) *Tin plates.*—The bulk of the imports is from England; it may be

¹ So in original, query \$1.70†

² See Appendix III, page 79.

well, however, to note the figures of the leading countries (in tons of 1,000 kilos), which are as follows:

Country.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
United Kingdom	1,773	2,647	2,804	5,178
Germany	8	19	8	812
Belgium	28	108	41	27
United States	133	84	41	216

There is a considerable fruit-canning industry in the country and the various factories as a rule buy their cans, the making of which (together with other articles made from tin plates, such as margarin tins, tea canisters, oil drums, paint tins, cigarette and sweetmeat boxes, etc., as well as a number made from soft steel plates) is conducted in several well appointed works.

One of these I visited, and forward a sample tea canister, * * * with conical zinc top, lettering and decorations lithographed direct on the tin, all the work being done in the factory. A contract for 50,000 of these was made at 14 cents each.

The demand for tin plates will no doubt increase with the development and increase of the country, but a new use for them has come into existence with a simple invention for catching locusts, the circular descriptive of which I inclose.¹ This invention I am told is now adopted by the Government commission having charge of the measures for combating the locust plague. Last year 6,000 cases of tin plates (practically the whole free stock in the place) were bought up by the inventor, and the invention was used, it is claimed, with perfect success.

Special plates, 1 meter long by 30 cm. wide, will be required, and I am told that 20,000 cases of such plates, 150 plates in a case, are coming for the present season.

The chief biscuit factory which I visited makes its own tin and uses 3,000 cases of tin plates per annum.

Cast or wrought and all other iron and steel manufactures.—Wrought-iron building girders and columns form a comparatively large trade, mostly in the hands of Belgium, as will appear from the following figures, in tons of 1,000 kilos:

Country.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
United Kingdom	110	1,068	1,601	1,780
Germany	140	266	284	1,070
Belgium	2,144	7,382	8,922	7,414

Anchors and chains (the latter both for marine and land use) almost all come from England.

Galvanized pipes come from England mainly, but in steam and gas pipes United States competition is felt, and is beginning also in galvanized pipes. Joints of all kinds, and cocks, are mostly American.

Wire nails (Paris points) of all sizes are made in the country. Cut tacks come from the United States, as also do shoe nails mostly. I forward a sample * * * of a packet of American iron shoe nails, packed

¹ See Appendix IV., page 80.

in cases of 100 packets of 400 grams each (including the weight of cardboard) which cost \$2.20 per 100 pounds, less 2 per cent, packed f. o. b. New York. These come in three sizes, the price being the same for all. The sizes are $\frac{5}{8}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, and $\frac{7}{8}$, and are used in about the proportion of 1, 10, and 5, respectively. Wrought iron nails are largely British.

Bolts and nuts from 3 inches up are made here, but smaller sizes are imported largely from the Continent.

Wood screws used to all come from England, but now Westphalia has almost taken the trade, simply through cheaper prices, as the quality is considered practically the same for this market. I forward a sample * * * of a packet of German wood screws, 21 to 30, of a quality which cost 0.87 franc per gross, less 5, 2, and 1 per cent, packed f. o. b.

* * * * *

Scales are a comparatively small import, in good part from England; steelyards being mostly made in the country, and a good part of the counter scales. Spring balances are all imported. Locally made platform scales are very good and have a large sale, but Howe's American platform scales are imported to a fair extent.

The best hinges are reported made in the country, the commoner ones coming from England and Germany.

Bricklayers' trays made in the country, of common iron, painted, have a large sale; also iron buckets made in like manner, which take the place to some extent of galvanized iron buckets.

2. COPPER. (a) Unwrought, is not distinguished from brass in the statistics; together they come from both England and the Continent.

(b) Wrought or partly wrought copper tubes come sometimes from England and sometimes from Belgium.

3. *Brass of all sorts.*—There is a considerable consumption of brass tubes besides plates and bars, mostly of English manufacture, but shoe nails come from the United States and France. Lamp burners (formerly all American) are now coming from Germany. I forward samples, * * * $\frac{5}{8}$ size (American A), and * * * $\frac{7}{8}$ size (American B), of German lamp burners packed in boxes (cardboard) of 1 dozen; each case has 50 dozen boxes = 50 gross burners, which cost 19s. for $\frac{5}{8}$ and 28s. 11½d. for the $\frac{7}{8}$ per gross, less 5 per cent, packed f. o. b. Hamburg.

4. *Lead* comes from the Continent and England. The French lead is preferred, I understand, for shot making, as being softer, and the English for tubes.

5. *Tin*, unwrought, is a small import, chiefly from England.

6. *Zinc*, wrought and unwrought, comes almost all from Belgium.

Musical instruments.—The trade in these is mostly a German one, and chiefly in the hands of specialists.

Pianos used to come from England years ago, but now hardly any are brought thence. A few are coming from the United States. The figures in 1896 were: Germany 690, Belgium 43, Spain 20, United States 33, France 129, Italy 49, Great Britain 27. A few are made locally.

Oil and floor cloths.—The great bulk of these articles come from England.

Oil, seed.—Linseed is an export of the country, and oil is made from it here to a considerable extent. One factory which I visited sends 3,000 tons per annum of linseed cake to Europe, where I am told more oil is extracted from it. I saw the best product of this factory at the store where it is sold, put up in locally made drums marked "Genuine boiled linseed oil," and with a small brass plate bearing the name "E.

Power & Sons, Philpot Lane, 7, London." Notwithstanding this, there is a fair amount imported, say 669,000 kilos in 1896. The import of cotton, cocoanut, colza, and rape-seed oil is very small by comparison, and that of palm oil was only 230,000 kilos in 1896, but the importation of olive oil was 6,626,000 kilos.

Painters' colors and materials.—White lead comes in larger quantities from England than elsewhere. It is commonly indented for by paint sellers, with from 20 to 40 per cent adulteration. Price of pure white lead is about \$1.60 per tin of 9 kilos. For making up here, a paint manufacturer told me he got German stuff purer and 10 per cent cheaper than English, and colors in powder as much as 50 per cent cheaper (for green).

Acetate of lead and gums he used to buy in England, but now gets the same things 20 per cent cheaper through Hamburg, whence the traveler comes every five months or so. Chalk also he gets cheaper from the Continent, and peroxide of iron ore he can buy here as per sample I forward * * * at \$8 per ton.

Made paints still come from England to some extent, but ochers are French, and lampblack German. Red lead comes from Germany and Italy besides England. The adulteration of this article is as high as 75 per cent; this, like other paints, used to come in drums containing 10 kilos, but now 9 kilos is the usual content.

Varnish of poor quality is made in the country. I have seen 1-gallon tins marked "Best crystal varnish, Feier, White & Co., Liverpool and London, No. 1," price, \$2.50 per tin; also 1-gallon tins marked "Copal, No. 0 1 varnish," price, \$1.80 per tin. The varnish of certain English makers is well known and appreciated, but one importer expressed to me what is no doubt the feeling of a good many others, viz, that he was trying to make his own mark, so as to buy where he liked, as when makers got their marks very well known they were too hard to deal with.

Asbestos comes chiefly from Italy.

Putty made at the factory referred to above, and stated to be of very good quality, is sold at 11 cents per kilo, against 16 cents on the same basis (currency) for the imported.

Paper other than hangings.—Paper making is an industry of the country—at all events as regards all kinds of wrapping, plain and colored, paper for newspapers, and other commoner kinds of paper. Stiff wrapping paper for wrapping hardware, however, does not appear to be made locally. Writing paper and envelopes come chiefly from the Continent, as also a small portion of the paper for newspapers and wrapping paper. I forward samples of a current class of German ruled writing paper in three thicknesses, as follows, viz: No. 651 sold here at \$2.35 per ream of 400 sheets; No. 652 at \$2.60, and No. 615 at \$3.20. Also of German envelopes: No. 350 sold here at \$3 per 1,000, and No. 62 at \$3.30.

Plate and plated ware.—The largest trade is said to be in American Britannia metal, but there is also a large sale of German plated ware, while the business in English, the best quality which comes, is comparatively small.

* * * * *
Toilet sets in Britannia metal or plated ware appear to be somewhat favorite luxuries here.

Salt.—Fine salt and rock salt come almost entirely from England, and common salt from Spain. Salt found in the country is also used.

Silk.—The great bulk of the pure silk fabrics come from France and Switzerland. In the cheaper grades of mixed silk and cotton dress

goods England and Germany compete; in plain colors, I am informed the trade in these goods is practically all German, but in fancy England is now the favorite.

Soap.—This is chiefly made in the country; the imports are from a number of countries, Great Britain having a larger share than any other country alone.

The candle factory I visited, referred to under the heading of "Candles," turns out 8,000 to 10,000 kilos per diem of common soap, which is disposed of at \$1.50 per 10 kilos, calculated to yield the factory, after allowing for discounts, etc., about \$1.20 net.

Spirits are distilled in the country both from grain and sugar. Much of them find their way into consumption on other than their own merits; nevertheless, there is a considerable import, chiefly of bitters, brandy, and gin, the first two chiefly from France, and the latter from Germany and Holland. Whisky, practically all from England, is of smaller importance. Rum spirit from the Tucuman district is sold at 76 cents the liter, I am credibly informed, although the excise duty is 60 cents, and costs, after paying this and freight, about 85 cents.

Stationery, other than paper.—Speaking generally, this trade tends constantly to become more a Continental and less a British one, with the exception, perhaps, of ink, and this is now being made locally.

Account books are made locally and excellent lithographic work is also done locally.

School slates come chiefly from the United States. It may be worth noting that the house which supplies a large number of the Government schools with school requisites (including books) represents one of the leading United States houses in these articles.

Stones and slates.—Slates for roofing are little used; the total in 1896 was just under 40,000 square meters, of which France and Belgium sent 17,000 and the United Kingdom 23,000. Tiles for roofing and flooring come in very large quantities from Marseilles.

Grindstones, millstones, and other sorts of stones.—Grindstones come in largest quantity from France, and lithographers' stones come, apparently entirely, from the Continent.

Sugar (refined).—Sugar is refined in the country, from the northeastern provinces of which the raw product comes; the latter is of a high grade. The production has been in excess of requirements during the last year or two, and a certain amount has been exported. In 1895 and 1896 there was still some importation of refined sugar, viz, 5,620 tons of 1,000 kilos in 1895 and 2,071 tons in 1896, practically all from the Continent, against an estimated total consumption of sugar of 90,000 tons per annum.

Sweetmeats.—Generally speaking, fancy high-class articles are French, but the bulk of the demand for common caramels, lozenges, etc., is supplied by local manufacturers, who, however, complain that they have not sufficient protection in the customs tariff and are agitating for more.

I visited a leading factory and saw plain (i. e., unfilled) colored caramels, in beautifully got up, locally made, 5-kilo canisters, lithographed in colors direct on the tin, which sell at 60 cents per kilo, including weight of tin.

English drops have some sale, also English chocolate creams.

Gum products are largely made in the country from gelatin, I understand.

I hear little or nothing of German competition in this trade, but I was told the caramel machines at the factory referred to above are German. The manager of an importing house in the trade told me he had

never had a visit from an English traveler, except for chocolates, and did not know what articles England made besides those just referred to.

Umbrellas and parasols are now made in the country, and the import trade has come to be a very small matter.

Frames used to be imported freely, but are now made here to a considerable extent. I forward a sample * * * of a locally-made umbrella, retailed at \$3.25 each, which costs, wholesale, \$28 per dozen.

Wood and timber, manufactured, including staves and empty casks.—Sawn timber, in small sizes of white pine and spruce, and in larger sizes of pitch pine and Oregon pine, from Canada and the United States, form a very large trade, but any timber worked at all (even grooved), beyond being merely cut to a size, is excluded by heavy duty. Staves come from North America. Door and window frames are often made of native cedar, and for outside ones the South American *algaroba*, a hard, lasting, though open-fibered wood, is much used. The latter wood also serves well for wood pavement. Karri wood is imported for railway sleepers when required in large quantities quickly, otherwise the native "*quebracho*" is excellent.

Woolen and worsted yarns.—Germany and Italy have the great bulk of the trade, which is small, and includes, besides wool for embroidering purposes and handlooms, a certain amount of wool for machine weaving, the native-spun woolen yarns not being so suitable for some purposes in hosiery making.

WOOLEN AND WORSTED MANUFACTURES.

(a and b) *Woolen, worsted, and mixed tissues.*—The following figures regarding woolen and mixed fabrics, exclusive of blankets, hosiery, etc., may be of interest as showing the trend of the trade from the principal producing countries (in thousands of dollars of custom-house value dispatched in each year):

[Expressed in thousands.]

	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.
PURE WOOL.				
United Kingdom.....	\$2, 150	\$2, 006	\$3, 288	\$2, 554
Germany.....	750	887	398	781
Belgium.....	421	470	285	438
France.....	1, 098	904	965	1, 572
WOOL AND COTTON.				
United Kingdom.....	990	924	915	1, 205
Germany.....	97	167	191	209
Belgium.....	67	83	56	76
France.....	44	32	60	72

I forward samples as follows:

* * * German black cloth, about 1 meter wide, costs 1.10 marks per meter, less 4 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * German cloth, about 40 per cent wool, 134 to 136 cm. wide, costs 1.75 marks per meter, less 2 or 3 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * German cloth, about 40 per cent wool, 144 cm. wide, costs 1.85 marks per meter, less 2 or 3 per cent, packed, placed in Hamburg.

I have previously referred to the fact of the customs valuations for the purpose of levying duty being subject to revision annually; revision has been somewhat frequent of late years in these woolen and

mixed goods, and as changes are not announced until shortly before they come into force, importers find it difficult to know how to act. For example, fabrics of all wool were valued last year at \$3.50 per kilo, those with a mixture of wool both ways \$2.50, those with a mixture of wool one way \$1.50, cotton fabrics \$1. This year the valuations came out as \$3 per kilo for wool, \$2 for mixtures, and \$1 for cotton. The duty on mixtures was promptly objected to as a hardship on some, so a new valuation of \$1.20 per kilo was made for mixtures containing less than 40 per cent wool. The result of this is that a common shoddy, chiefly wool cloth, costing in bond about 10d per meter, has to pay on the \$2 valuation, equal to 100 per cent, while a good-looking well-made cashmere style, containing just under 40 per cent wool and costing in bond 29d. per meter, comes in at the \$1.20 valuation, which is equal to about 25 per cent. Further changes are expected when the next year's valuations come out, but it is absolutely impossible to tell what they may be.¹ All-wool cloth is made in this country to some extent.

I forward samples as follows:

* * * Locally made military cloths, 140 to 150 cm. wide, weighing 700 to 720 grams per piece, price (to Government) \$5.35 currency per meter. Another factory expects to make more or less the same quality to sell to a contractor at \$4.50 per meter.

* * * Locally made military cloth, 140 cm. wide, price \$4 per meter.

* * * Locally made cashmere, 140 cm. wide, price \$4.80 per meter.

High-class tailoring establishments, of which there are many here, buy their suitings direct in cuts, as in Europe. French styles prevail in this, as in other things.

(c) *Flannels*.—These are made locally, but the German mixed flannel holds the market. I forward samples of the latter as follows, viz:

* * * "FA" quality white flannel, 65 cm. wide, about 170 grams per meter, price 1.04 marks per meter, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * "GII" quality white flannel, 65 cm. wide, about 160 grams per meter, price 0.90 mark per meter, packed, placed in Hamburg.

* * * "GII" quality yellow flannel, 66 cm. wide, about 166 grams per meter, price 0.98 mark per meter.

(d) *Blankets, ponchos, etc.*—Woolen blankets are generally made in the country, the imports, chiefly from France, being comparatively small. I forward samples as follows:

* * * A locally made all-wool blanket, 170 by 215 cm., price \$12.45 each, less 30 per cent.

* * * A locally made blanket, with a mixture of cotton, 170 by 215 cm., price \$11.10 each, less 30 per cent.

Ponchos, not mantas (the short poncho), have a large sale. Those of pure wool are made mostly in the country. I forward a sample * * * of a poncho made here, 259 by 144 cm., price \$8 currency, less 6 to 10 per cent discount, according to quantity. Lower qualities are made at \$6 and \$7.

(e) *Worsted stuff, all wool, for women's wear*.—Fine qualities are French, but in mixed goods British makes hold their own.

(f) *Carpets and druggets*.—The trade is almost entirely in English goods.

(g) *Of all other sorts*.—The bulk of the trade in woolen hosiery, which is a comparatively small one, is, I am informed, supplied by local manufacturers.

¹ Goods should be either 14 to 16 ounces or 22 to 24 ounces, not intermediate weights.

It will naturally occur to anyone reading the foregoing remarks how many articles there are which are made in one form or another in Great Britain, but which do not reach this market at present, or, if they do, only in comparatively small quantities. In not a few cases the article, identical in quality is cheaper to manufacture on the Continent, but in many others I am constrained to conclude, from what I have learned, that the British manufacturers have lost the trade in greater or less measure by failing promptly to comply with the information as to changes in quality, make or get up, etc., which may have been conveyed to them. It has been said to me, "ad nauseam," in one form or another, "We asked British manufacturers to do so and so, or to make this in such and such a way, but they said they could not, or it did not suit them, and so we went elsewhere." The impression seems frequently to be that the British manufacturer is doing too well and is too full of orders to care for making changes which perhaps involve expense and alteration of plant to a greater or less extent, whereas, when anything is asked for in Germany or America, it is promptly made, and if not quite what is wanted is altered as required.

In one or two cases I have been glad to learn that British wares have come into the running again, but these are few and far between, and I will not enlarge upon those trades where we are holding our own, especially as, unfortunately, the general trend is in the direction of our losing more and more ground. Not a few importers have told me how they have tried to go on with such and such British goods as long as they possibly could, but gradually have had to give way. Doubtless there are other matters which also affect the competition with British goods, to which I will now refer, but I am reluctantly compelled to place in the foreground the one I have enlarged upon, as I can not avoid the conclusion that it is the principal one.

Taking up those matters suggested in the latter part of your letter of 21st December last, I would say with regard to—

(1) *Freights*.—The references already made to this matter will show that, if occasional outside steamers from northern continental ports be excepted, the only serious handicap British goods have in this matter (and this affects equally the northern continental ports) are the cheap freights which Italian goods enjoy, and which, no doubt, are a very considerable aid to the apparently rapidly developing industries of that country. Steamer freights from the United States are controlled as in northern Europe, and are, I gather, not any cheaper than from the latter as a rule, but sailers from the former country have still to be reckoned with.

(2) *Quality and finish*.—It is difficult to say anything generally under this heading; as a rule, however, owing to the demand being guided in most cases (not all) more by prices than quality, it is a cheaper quality that is wanted, but a good finish and nice appearance are absolutely indispensable—in many cases everything—and these English manufacturers do not often give to cheaper classes of goods.

(3) *Style and manner of preparing for the market*.—Here, again, it is very difficult to generalize; similar remarks to those under the previous heading apply, and too great care can not be bestowed on every and any detail which may be asked for, no matter how unimportant or even absurd it may seem to the manufacturer.

(4) *Manner of making up and packing*.—Again I would say it is of the utmost importance to follow to the letter every instruction given. It will be seen from the tariff that inside packing is generally, and outside packing not unfrequently, included in the weight upon which duty is

chargeable, so that lightness in packing materials is a necessity. Socks, for example, are packed in bundles simply made up with a paper band round them, instead of in cardboard boxes; orders for cartridges have been lost to certain English manufacturers through their declining to put the cartridges in light cardboard boxes.

(5) Native industries, as already mentioned, compete in many directions, and in not a few to the exclusion of the imported article. I have referred above to such instances, and now inclose some memoranda¹ made out by a leading inquiry agency here, regarding the leading industries, with notes on the chief factories in each (the estimates of profits in these notes should be taken with reserve, I think); also a memorandum² giving some further particulars of those factories which I have visited.

* * * * *

(6) False marking and piracy of trade-marks are both quite common here. The former is most in evidence in the false indications of place of manufacture on locally made goods, but although the law, I understand, makes the dealer who orders false marks, whether of origin or contents, jointly liable with the manufacturer who puts them on, it apparently leaves those who may feel themselves aggrieved to take action against the falsifiers.

I have not noticed that the import of British goods in competition with other imported goods has, in the majority of trades, been seriously affected by such matters as those just referred to. Our competitors in the import trade are certainly generally the first to cut weights or lengths, etc., but then in the majority of instances it is done in the case of goods sold by the package, supposed formerly to contain so much but not so marked, and in such cases the reduction becomes the custom of the trade and the British manufacturer has to follow. Indeed, the docking of contents in this way has developed in such a manner in many articles as to be quite bewildering and to constitute the trade in each article a study of no little intricacy.

Trade-marks are registered and can be defended legally, but great care has to be used in carrying on a prosecution, and the want of such care, as well as the perjury of witnesses, has led to failures of justice in the past, which fact, not to mention the expense of legal proceedings, naturally deters a good many owners of pirated marks from vindicating their rights. Some, however, have vindicated them successfully so far³ * * *.

(7) *Relations between producers and their customers, etc.*—Not very much is heard now of English travelers being without a knowledge of the language of the country, but undoubtedly our competitors are far ahead of us as regards trade circulars and advertising matter. The

¹ See Appendix V, page 81.

² See Appendix VI, page 88.

³ NOTE.—Trade-marks. An expert whom I consulted * * * has written to me the following: "Very important. The special law of September 13, 1877, defining article 38 of the law of 1876, establishes that there is no time limit ('plazo') for the registration of foreign marks. The national supreme court and the office of marks, interpreting the special law, have established that a mark already registered in the Argentine Republic may be annulled by an identical one ('una igual') registered with priority abroad." My correspondent proceeds to point out that, in the case of an English registered mark having been adopted by others than the owners and registered here, upon the presentation of the duly legalized British anterior registration, the latter prevails. He adds that this is so great an advantage for foreign merchants, that it is suppressed in the law at present proposed, which has indeed passed the deputies, but is not likely to be proceeded with.

Americans, for example, not only send admirable circulars and descriptive catalogues in Spanish, but they follow them up by boxes of samples, free in many cases.

The want in Great Britain of the use of the metric system, which is the basis of the great bulk of first-hand business here, is undoubtedly a great drawback to British trade, especially in estimates for engineering work and such like.

(8) *Exhibitions of export goods.*—I have heard the one at Philadelphia very favorably commented on by a large English importer here. I understand that it is possible for a manufacturer there to go and see at once what kind of goods are sent from the principal producing countries to South America in any given trade, and also to ascertain the standing of importers in South America in such trade.

Another English importer told me of the letters he had had from the Manufacturers' Club in Philadelphia, whose object is to place importers in these countries in connection with the leading manufacturers in any given trade in the United States and of the assistance he had found them. Probably our manufacturers, in some trades at all events, would consider that these are primitive methods which they have grown out of, but it is certainly a question whether, in a good many trades at least, the idea might not be carried out with advantage at home. I inclose a slip sent with the Manufacturer, the organ of the Manufacturers' Club of Philadelphia.¹

(9) *Terms of payment.*—As already indicated, I question whether our competitors, comparing British and foreign houses of more or less the same standing, offer any more facilities than are obtained from our own manufacturers, but there appear to be more needy and careless sellers on continental account than on British.

American houses are, I understand, now beginning to conform to the long-credit terms of this market, which they were formerly not willing to do.

(10) The customs tariff I have already referred to; it is comparatively simple, and as far as I can learn is not so "framed or interpreted as to tax with varying degrees of severity the particular classes of goods produced by the several countries," * * *

With regard to the greater facilities on the Continent for obtaining capital for business here compared with those in England, it has been suggested to me that the want of a law providing for a "commandite" partner in a house does away with one very important facility which our continental competitors enjoy. Our companies' act does not always meet the case or is for one reason or another inconvenient.

Reverting to the main cause (apart from the question of prices pure and simple) of the decadence of the importation of British manufactures in many directions, namely, the want of a prompt response to indications from this market of changes required, while it is not for me to inquire into the reasons for this alleged too-fond adherence to existing methods, I can not but feel that if the men who are coming forward to have a big stake in our leading factories, together with the control of their management, were in the first instance to become thoroughly conversant with every detail of their business, and to acquire such a knowledge of Spanish as would enable them to speak and write it respectably, and were then to spend a year in this country studying closely the requirements of the trade and the doings of their competitors, we should hear less in the future of British manufactures being left behind.

¹ See Appendix VII, page 92.

With regard to the cheaper prices of our competitors, our workmen would do well to consider that, if the small pay and long hours which produce these on the Continent give continental manufacturers an advantage in the United States, which is coming forward in many articles and is already paramount in some, it is hard work and inventive genius which are winning—not trying how little work a man can do for his money, nor last century methods, such as boycotting labor-saving machines, nor yet preventing a clever and pushing man from making more than his less able or easier-going mate.

AUGUST 25, 1898.

Since the foregoing was written I have visited Rosario and gone over several important works there.

Rosario is not, as already intimated, the place of importance as regards imports that it once was. Buyers from the provinces who used to draw their supplies from that center find that, with the through railway communications that now exist, they can go to Buenos Ayres at very little more expense, buy their goods cheaper, enjoy themselves at the same time (as they could not in Rosario), and get their purchases home at a comparatively small additional expense. Consequently the direct import through Rosario has declined, as shown by the falling off in custom-house receipts, while the reduced demand for freight room, combined with the increased difficulties of the navigation owing to the inaction of the Government in regard to preserving the channels, result in fewer and less regular opportunities for shipment.

Under these circumstances I have, as will readily be understood, gained there little, if any, special information bearing on the subject of my mission. Generally speaking, I did not hear much in the short time which was at my disposal of the trade in British goods now falling off, but could not fail to see and learn how much trade had been lost to British makers in the past.

As an example of one case, I forward a sample * * * of German horseshoe nails, in packages of 9 kilos net each, five of these being tied together, which cost c. i. f. in gold dollars as follows:

	Per kilo.
No. 5	\$1.60
No. 6	1.45
No. 7	1.35
No. 8	1.25

Six years ago, I am told, horseshoe nails all came from England, "G" nails; the quality was good, that is admitted, better than the German, but the English nails did not have the point finished, and were heavier, and were, consequently, more expensive. The Germans brought a light, cheap nail, with the point finished, and got the trade, which is a large one, to the exclusion of the others.

English wire, I was told, another large trade the bulk of which has been taken by the Continent, in addition to being dearer, is more brittle and less pliable than the wire which has superseded it. The Buenos Ayres drawn wire is not deemed a serious competitor.

Washing blue comes from Germany packed in lumps, in boxes of 6½ kilos, costing recently 0.72 to 0.73 marks per kilo c. i. f.

In Rosario I visited several important works, some notes on which I have appended to the memorandum heretofore referred to.

Reverting to subjects already dealt with, I may add:

Chemical products and dyestuffs.—The trade in "sheep dip" is large, larger than that in alkalies, and increasing. I understand the nicotine

dip is not so well liked as the chemical dip, which comes chiefly from England, but the latter is now being made also in the country from residual products of gas.

Glass.—Beer bottles, the consumption of which is estimated at 3,000,000 annually, all come from Germany, where price defies even local competition; but of gin bottles, whose consumption is estimated as high as 5,000,000 annually, one-half are made in the country.

Freights.—I may mention that I have seen an invoice, dated last month, of several hundred tons of sand for glassmaking at 13s. per ton, through freight from Fontainebleau to this port by steamer, via Antwerp. This sand, I understand, always comes via Antwerp or Hamburg, and not via Havre.

Italian competition.—This is felt not only in the prices and suitability of the products, but in the extraordinary economy of those who sell them here, and the consequent small margin they are content with. The Peninsular-Spanish business men, themselves a very economical class, who are probably the traders most in evidence here (importers, dealers, and country travelers), feel this. How much more, then, our countrymen?

* * * * *
I am, etc.,

THOS. WORTHINGTON,
Commissioner.

APPENDIX I.

MEMORANDUM RE CUSTOM-HOUSE MATTERS.

(See page 48.)

Shippers will do well to keep in mind the following custom-house regulations:

1. Within eight days of the arrival of a steamer in port, a note must be presented to the custom-house authorities by the consignees of the cargo stating marks, numbers, contents, and weights of packages. If this is not done within the eight days stipulated a fine of 2 per cent on the value is imposed. (Art. 929, Custom-House Regulations.) If more than fifteen days elapse before presenting the said note, the fine is increased to 5 per cent on the value, and the packages are taken to a special depository, where they are opened and a note of the contents is taken. Although pilfering does not always take place, this opening up is invariably against the goods, as no great pains are taken in repacking.

2. Great care must be taken in regard to the weights of packages. A difference of 6 per cent is allowed to pass without any penalty, but if the goods weigh more than the 6 per cent over and above what has been declared, the custom-house confiscates whatever is in excess, and the only way to redeem the goods, if they are wanted, is to pay the custom-house their value according to tariff, plus the duty on same. (Art. 930.)

3. In the case of difference of quality, where the goods have been declared as a lower quality than they really are, double duties are charged.

It may not be amiss to note that when the goods turn out inferior to what has been declared—that is, subject to a lower duty—the higher duty is invariably charged.

The same thing happens as regards weight. If the weight of a package turns out to be less than what has been declared, duties are invariably charged on the weight declared.

4. It will be well to bear in mind that if the bills of lading do not come exactly as required by law (agents of steamers will supply details), the goods are detained until the bills of lading are arranged. It is of the utmost importance that there should be no mistake in the marks or numbers of the packages, otherwise the whole shipment is detained, often for days.

APPENDIX II.

PRICE LIST OF CARTRIDGES MADE AT A FACTORY IN THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

(See page 50.)

[Compañía Sud-Americana. Fábrica á vapor de cartuchos de cazar. 1727, Calle Solís.]

Esta fábrica primera y única en la República, fabrica cartuchos de cazar, vacíos y cargados de todo calibre, garantidos iguales á las mejores fábricas europeas y remitirá muestras á los que las soliciten, con las cuales podrán cerciorarse del esmero de la fabricación.

PRECIOS Y EMBALAGE.

Cartuchos fuego central.

Calibre 16 con sus tacos vacíos.....el mil..	\$15.00
Calibre 16 cargados.....do....	48.00
Calibre 16 con tacos engrasados y pólvora especial.....do....	60.00
Calibre 16 con tacos engrasados y pólvora sin humo.....do....	80.00
Los cartuchos vacíos en cajones de.....	10,000
Los cartuchos cargados cajones de.....	1,000

Las órdenes se dirigen á la Calle Solís 1727, Buenos Aires, Enero de 1898.

APPENDIX III.

PRICE LIST OF WIRE NETTING MADE AT A FACTORY IN THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC.

(See page 67.)

[Francisco Merlo y Ca., Escritorio y Taller, 1350-1377 Calle Salta, Buenos Aires.]

Tejido por metro caudrado:

Tejido con alam. neg.—

Moneda
nacional.

No. 13 malla de 1½ pounds	\$0.45
No. 13 malla de 2 pounds34
No. 13 malla de 2½ pounds28
No. 12 malla de 2 pounds39
No. 12 malla de 2½ pounds34
No. 12 malla de 3 pounds29
No. 12 malla de 4 pounds25
No. 9 malla de 2 pounds68
No. 9 malla de 2½ pounds60
No. 9 malla de 3 pounds52
No. 9 malla de 4 pounds35
No. 8 malla de 2 pounds78
No. 8 malla de 2½ pounds70
No. 8 malla de 3 pounds58
No. 8 malla de 4 pounds40
No. 7 malla de 2 pounds93
No. 7 malla de 2½ pounds85
No. 7 malla de 3 pounds72
No. 7 malla de 4 pounds50
No. 6 malla de 2½ pounds	1.20
No. 6 malla de 3 pounds	1.05
No. 6 malla de 4 pounds80

Se fabrica tejido con alambre galvanizado y de bronce á precios convencionales.

Postes de madera dura con puntas para tejido de todas medidas.

Planchuelas con sus tornillos-ganchos para id.

Máquinas de correa para ingerir alambre	9.25
Máquinas de estirar para ingerir de tornillo	22.00
Máquinas de estirar para ingerir crick No. 1	7.25
Máquinas de estirar para ingerir crick No. 2	7.75
Máquinas de estirar para ingerir crick No. 3	10.00
Máquinas de estirar para ingerir crick No. 4	11.75
Tijera grande de remache p. cortar alambre	2.00
Tijera grande de tornillo p. cortar alambre	4.00
Tijera chica de remache sin resorte	1.60
Tijera chica de remache con resorte	1.90

APPENDIX IV.

CIRCULAR RESPECTING A NEW INVENTION FOR CATCHING LOCUSTS.

(See page 68.)

[Barrera Metálica Articulada para la Extinción de la Langosta Saltona. Únicos fabricantes: J. Montaron & Cia., Calle Garay, 2340, Buenos Ayres.]

La barrera está hecha de hojas lisas de zinc, fierro galvanizado ó hojalata, reunidas entre sí con anillos de fierro ó bronce formando visagara. Cada juego tiene de diez á veinte hojas. Los juegos pueden también ser reunidos pasando un alambre en los anillos que tienen á propósito en sus extremidades; así se obtiene el largo que se quiere.



FIG. 1.—Barrera plegada.

La barrera se fija al suelo con clavos largos pasados en los anillos ó sobre estacas y paredes por medio de clavitos pasados también en los anillos de unión. Para trasportarla se hace un pliego de cada juego.

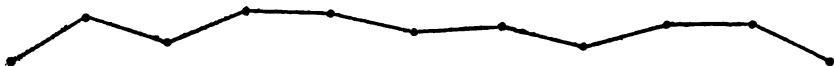


FIG. 2.—Barrera extendida.

No hay casos especiales para utilizar la barrera. Este sistema se puede al contrario emplear siempre, que la saltona sea en campo raso, sembrados, montes bajos ó arbustos espinosos, en movimiento ó parada, que la matanza sea hecha por medio de zanjas, fuego ó pisones.

MODO DE USARLA.

Por la mañana, cuando las mangas de saltonas están todavía inmóviles, se pone la barrera alrededor de cada una de dichas mangas para encerrarlas; siendo así la saltona puesta en corrales, los trabajadores tienen el tiempo necesario para destruir las mangas una después de otra, sea por medio de zanjas, sea por medio del fuego.

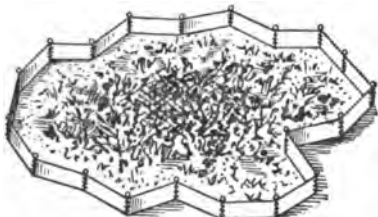


FIG. 3.—Barrera puesta alrededor de una manga.

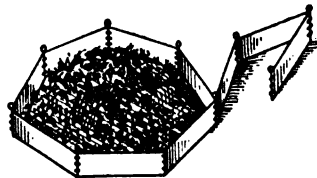


FIG. 4.—La misma manga amontonada.

La operación consiste entonces á estrechar más y más la superficie del corral, reduciendo el círculo de barrera, para amontonar la saltona y matarla con toda facilidad.

Si las mangas son en grandes cantidades y que el personal sea reducido, se hacen los corrales hasta concluir y se espera al otro día para la matanza, pues una vez dentro la barrera la saltona no puede escaparse.

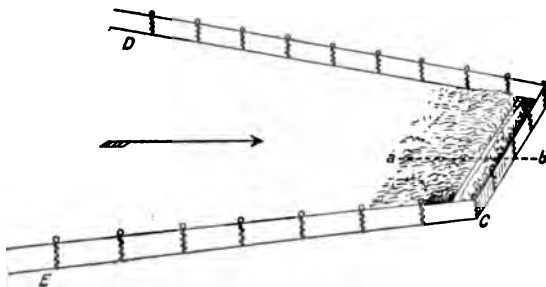


FIG. 5.

En caso de no tener elementos para la matanza de la saltona encerrada, se la deja dos días en los corrales para que se muera por el efecto de la aglomeración y del calor del fierro.

Siendo las mangas muy grandes, la construcción del corral necesitaría demasiado barrera y personal para operar del mismo modo que con las mangas chicas y medianas. En este caso, por delante de la manga, se hace una zanja (A, fig. 5) de bastante capacidad para que la saltona pueda caer adentro.

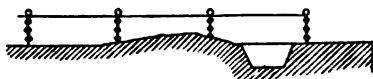


FIG. 6.—Corte por a. b.

Tras de la zanja y sobre el borde se extiende una línea de barrera B C y de cada costado otras líneas B D y C E de manera á formar como un embudo. Los trabajadores conducen la saltona en el interior del embudo, asustándola con banderitas. Una vez entrada la saltona, se juntan las extremidades D E

de la barrera y la manga está presa. Es fácil entonces hechar la saltona en la zanja y taparla con tierra ó bien destruirla de cualquier otro modo.

Este sistema de barrera se utiliza también para impedir la entrada de la saltona en los jardines, quintas y chacras. Basta cercar con dicha barrera. Recordamos que, según el artículo 80 de las Instrucciones de la Comisión Central Nacional de Extinción de Langosta, todo ocupante de terreno puede construir barreras alrededor de su propiedad para impedir la entrada de la saltona, debiendo dejar abiertas las vías públicas.

APPENDIX V.

[Translation.]

MEMORANDUM ON THE LEADING ARGENTINE INDUSTRIES.

(See page 75.)

Textile manufactures.—For eight years past, in consequence of the protective policy which has been favorable to this industry, numerous factories have been established, some provided with considerable capital, but many with so little that they have not been able to maintain their existence.

As a consequence of this protective policy, the national production has gradually at last dislodged all importation of common goods.

The factories are worked according to the most modern American, German, and English systems, and are principally devoted to the manufacture of socks and chemisettes of cotton and wool of the ordinary kinds. These manufactures being in the hands of about twelve factories of importance, the production exceeds the consumption, and this has an unfavorable effect upon the price by forcing the sales.

This anomalous condition should tend to disappear in proportion as smaller manufacturers drop out if the industry is to be afforded an opportunity of continuing its development, even with small profits.

Among the most important manufacturers are the following:

Name.	Number of operatives.	Annual production.
1. Balbienne & Antonini	300 to 400	\$500,000
2. E. Dell'Acqua & Co.	300 to 400	600,000
3. R. Monteros & Co.	250 to 300	500,000
4. Medli & Roelli	200 to 250	400,000

The first and third manufacture socks and chemisettes, whilst the second, besides these articles, makes towels, satinets, etc., and the fourth, American cotton sailcloth, whilst keeping up its manufacture of socks and slippers.

There are other important firms, such as that of G. Franchini & Co., which makes socks, shirts, blankets, ponchos, hats, and ordinary cassimeres, in which branches it employs 700 operatives; that of Camponar & Co. produces ponchos, cloaks, cushions, etc.

The raw material, in yarn, only pays an import duty of 2½ per cent, while the completed manufactured articles pay a duty of 50 or even 100 per cent.

Manufacture of shirts and linen.—This industry has greatly extended in the Republic. Only the higher classes of goods are now imported from abroad, and even these come only because of the morbid taste which makes people prefer foreign goods to native, though the latter may be quite as good as the former.

Among the numerous firms of more or less importance in the capital and the provinces, the three following take the lead:

Name.	Number of operatives.	Annual sales.
H. Sternberg, Jr., & Co.	200	\$500,000
Hübbe & Co.	80	200,000
Gorchs & Co.	50	150,000

The first is a branch of the Berlin and Vienna firms and is understood to be backed by a large capital. Hübbe & Co. must possess a capital of between 80,000 and 100,000 pesos, and Gorchs & Co. some 20,000 to 30,000 pesos. As there is much competition in this line the net profits made by the makers vary between 15 and 20 per cent on the sales.

Manufacture of bags and sacks.—This industry, owing largely to the spread of agriculture, has increased to such an extent that from 30,000,000 to 50,000,000 of sacks are now sold annually (according to the year and the crops) in the country. The five principal factories are capable of producing more than 100,000,000 sacks.

The importation of manufactured sacks is thus rendered impossible.

The five factories are as follows:

Name.	Years of existence.	Capital.	Engines.	Manufactured in 1897.
La Primitiva, Buenos Ayres.....	10	\$2,000,000	150	15,000,000
G. A. Seré & Co., Buenos Ayres.....	12	750,000	100	10,000,000
Meili & Roessli, Buenos Ayres.....	8	a 200,000	50	6,000,000
O. Nordtmeier & Co., Rosario.....	10	750,000	100	6,000,000
Salinas & Co., Buenos Ayres.....	12	100,000	20	1,500,000

a Gold.

representing, each sack, a value of, on an average, 7 centavos (gold).

In the year 1896-97 the manufacturers came to an agreement to insure stability of prices, but last year there was no agreement, the reason being that the profits on the sales, after paying interest on capital, vary from 2 to 6 per cent, and that only by exercise of great care in the selection of firms dealt with, and the purchase under the most favorable conditions of the sackcloth and thread imported from abroad.

The machines employed for sewing the sacks are the Kimball, Morton, and Union; and La Primitiva alone is able to turn out more than 100,000 bags a day.

Manufacture of hats.—This industry has increased so extensively within the last ten years that the importation of hats is now entirely confined to two or three firms which import articles de luxe.

The two principal factories are G. Franchini & Co., 1894, with 400 operatives, and 2,500 hats daily, and Cayetano Dellachá, 1886, with 300 operatives, and 2,000 hats daily; both possessing good capital, the former with about 1,000,000 pesos, this being divided among its factories of hats, textiles, ponchos, etc. It is estimated that Dellachá has a capital of from \$500,000 to \$600,000.

There are also the following: Pablo Brousson, 1891, producing daily 300 common hats; C. Lagomarsino & Co., 1890, producing daily 80 fine hats; A. Dell'Aglio, 1893, producing daily 200 ordinary hats; Luis Marelli, 1890, producing daily 80 fine hats.

The profits of this industry may be estimated at between 20 and 25 per cent on the sales, and the two factories first mentioned are competent to go on increasing their output to match the demand of the country.

Manufacture of slippers.—For many years these articles were made by hand. In 1883 they were first manufactured by machinery, and a company was formed to work a concession from the National Government for ten years, which concession was extended for five years more.

Other companies, working machinery on other systems, have since been established, among which the following are now in existence:

Name.	Year established.	Capital.	Production per day.
Fabrica Argentina & Co.....	1883	a 365,000	250,000
Merret & Co.....	1888	(b)	50,000
Andia Mira & Herce.....	1896	100,000	75,000
Pablo Balfan.....	1898	50,000	25,000

a Gold.

b Not stated.

Besides these there is the firm of Meili & Roessli, which is not working at present on account of the pending litigation with the Fabrica Argentina, caused by its having used the same machinery. This suit was won at the first hearing by Meili & Roessli.

The total consumption of this article may be estimated at 1,000,000 dozen, and, although the existing factories are in a position to manufacture more, they do not do so, as a certain number of customers still prefer the slippers which are made by hand, though these are a little more expensive.

Among the best hand manufacturers is Pantaleon Burco, who produces about 300 dozens per diem, of a quality which is imitated by the factories of machine-made slippers.

The Fabrica Argentina has the manufacture of braided soles, made of imported cotton yarn.

This factory obtained in 1897 a net profit of \$107,000 (gold) and employed 600 operatives. It has some 25 machines, each able to sew some 50 to 60 dozen slippers a day.

The hand manufacturers, selling on an average for some \$6 per dozen, gain from 60 to 70 cents a dozen.

LEATHER GOODS.

There are very old established factories for this article in the country, but the importance of the industry has vastly increased during the last ten years, for whereas previously only skins and fells of a very inferior description were cured, the manufacture has now advanced in all its branches. Very few cured hides now are brought from abroad, and these are limited to patent-leather calfskins and dressed kids for the first qualities of shoes, saddlery, and articles de luxe.

There are various firms installed here which are on a level with the best European houses, and contain all the modern machinery and appliances, and all of them are engaged in continually improving their products in order to compete advantageously with one another.

Little by little each leather dresser looks out to secure for his own firm a specialty—varnished work, kid, morocco, or sole leather—but the industry has not advanced far enough yet for the energies of an entire firm to be concentrated on a single branch, as in Europe.

The number of leather manufactories which exist in the capital and in the provinces, taking only those of some importance, is about 50, and those which work in the capital are as follows:

Name.	Specialty.	Years of exist- ence.	Capital.	Opera- tives.	Annual product.
Gaggino, Lauret & Co....	Sole leather, varnished work, calf.	25	\$500,000	200	\$1,200,000
Wattinne.....	Sole leather, varnished work and kid.	12	(a)	150	800,000
Santos, Luppi & Co.....	Sole leather, varnished and calf, patent wares.	40	500,000	120	700,000
J. & P. Hourcade.....	Basils or roans, blocks.....	35	400,000	100	600,000
J. Grünbaum.....	Sole leather, kid and calf, varnished wares.	8	150,000	100	500,000
R. Aretz & Sieburger....	Varnished work for vehicles.....	6	100,000	30	200,000
A. Roere & Co.....	Varnished vacuna skins.....	20	100,000	40	250,000

a Not stated.

Given the advance of this industry, the protection offered by the heavy duty on the imported articles, 40 per cent, and the existence of the raw materials (namely, hides and tannin) in the country itself, the importation of these articles has been reduced to a minimum; more than this, a great deal of prepared leather is now exported to Switzerland and Germany, and it is very possible that in time much more dressed leather will be exported.

The average profit on leather goods, although the last few years can not be considered as normal, owing to the dislocation of all branches of trade, may be taken at the present to be about from 10 to 15 per cent net on the amount of sales.

In the provinces of Tucuman and Salta there exists important establishments, the specialty of which (sole leather) is taken to Buenos Ayres and Rosario.

At the present moment a very important establishment in its own branch ("Le Elisita" of Domingo, Barthe & Co., now in liquidation), situated in Barracas al Sud, is for sale; it is fitted up with modern machinery for dealing with kid, vacuna hides, and sheepskins.

Boots and shoes.—This industry which has for ten years past been exploited by four or five factories of greater or less importance, has been very profitable, but is now doing very little good on account of the numberless factories which have been started. It may be affirmed that owing to the keen competition many manufacturers will become bankrupt, and those alone will remain in existence who practice the strictest economy and use the best and most modern appliances.

The importation of foreign boots and shoes has become almost nil in consequence of the heavy duty of 45 per cent, especially as the country itself produces the principal raw materials.

Besides those in the capital, there are factories at Rosario and Cordoba. It is calculated that the profit is about 10 per cent net on the amount of the sales, which, upon the invested capital, amounts to about 20 or 25 per cent annually. The most important firms are the following:

Name.	Years of exist- ence.	Capital.	Opera- tives.	Annual sale.
Marti Bros	20	\$500,000	250	\$1,200,000
Wattinne & Co., late Mantels & Pfeiffer	20	(a)	100	500,000
Juan Dyo-Cirio	20	(a)	100	500,000
Tuñon Bros	10	200,000	120	600,000
Roffo Bros. & Sanguinetti	30	150,000	100	400,000

a Not stated.

The factories of the first two firms (Marti and Wattinne) as well as that of Fargas, in Cordoba, may be styled complete and modern as regards their machinery, and can confidently be compared with analogous European establishments.

The following may also be mentioned as leading firms:

Name.	Years of exist- ence.	Capital.	Opera- tives.	Annual sale.
Sanchez Bros	20	\$300,000	150	\$500,000
Alvaro Istueta	20	200,000	150	600,000
Ansaldo Bros. & Co.	15	300,000	150	500,000

None of these, however, has an established factory, but all employ home labor, disregarding the factory system altogether.

Besides those which have been named there are about 100 more or less important firms engaged in this industry in the capital, Cordoba, and Rosario.

Many of these, besides holding the capital which is entered in their name, are people of independent fortune, and if occasion should present itself could double or treble the capital now invested in their establishments.

The manufacture of shoes and boots has notably improved during the last ten years, whether as regards the ordinary article for the country or more finished goods for ladies and gentlemen, and if anything is now imported from abroad it is articles de luxe or infants' boots and shoes.

The factories of Wattinne and Cirio are much patronized by the Government for boots for the troops.

Manufacture of paper.—This industry is monopolized here by the joint stock company "La Argentina," which has its factory at Zárate and was founded in 1888. Owing to the extent of its works and the influence which its directors can bring to bear articles of the same kind as those made by this factory are burdened by such a high import duty that it may be considered prohibitory; thus, packing paper pays 12 cents gold per kilo; paper for newspapers, 3 cents gold; colored paper for printing, 12½ cents gold, etc. The consequence is that, if such articles are imported from abroad, the tax amounts to from 150 to 200 per cent of the price and they are therefore not imported at all.

The enormous profits which "La Argentina" realizes constitute a motive for concealing from the public at large the result of its operations. Dividends of between 15 per cent and 20 per cent are paid, the remainder of the profits being devoted to the reserve fund, which to-day amounts to almost as much as the original capital, 1,500,000 pesos; that is to say, the total capital is now about 2,700,000 pesos.

The sales, so far as we can judge from such data as are forthcoming, fluctuate between 1,200,000 and 1,500,000 pesos per annum, and the net profit must be from 50 per cent to 60 per cent of the selling price.

There exist other small paper mills, one in Buenos Ayres, one in Rosario, and a third in Córdoba, which confine themselves almost entirely to the manufacture of packing paper; but as the competition of the factory at Zárate cuts down prices, these small manufacturers, who can only reckon on limited capital, obtain only small profits, and yet all the same they make sufficient to pay them.

Iron foundries and machinery.—There exist in the country businesses which in the twenty or thirty years during which they have been established have so developed as to be able to claim considerable importance.

Among them may be named: Pedro Vasena, 1872, with 400 to 500 operatives; Carlos Zamboni, 1856, with 200 to 300 operatives; Pedro Merlini, 1885, with 100 operatives.

These are the principal firms, both as regards activity and capital, the two former holding more than half a million of capital, while the sales of P. Vasena are estimated at more than a million annually.

These establishments are principally occupied in founding supports, joists, bars, etc., including pieces of great size; they also construct machinery for general use, such as windlasses, winches, wheels, saws, as well as boilers and other smaller goods.

At the same time it is impossible to consider the manufacture of machinery in Argentina as of any importance, for the simple reason that, although the machinery might be made, it is not worth while to turn out only two or three machines after preparing the molds; and as there would be no market for a greater quantity those required by the country continue to be imported.

The firms mentioned above, however, work at good profit, as their development proves. This profit naturally varies on different articles, but it may be said that the general profits amount to from 20 per cent to 40 per cent of the selling price.

Manufacture of Paris nails.—There are two firms which supply the wants of the whole country in this respect.

The manufacturers limit themselves to importing the wire, drawing it out to the required length, and cutting and heading it.

Owing to the protection which is afforded by the import duties (100 kilos of nails pay \$3 gold, specific duty, as against 5 per cent on a value of \$5 gold per 100 kilos of wire—specific duty, \$0.25 per 100 kilos) the imported article can not compete against that manufactured in the country, especially as the only firms in the country, viz, Freisz & Co. and George C. Müller & Co., work in agreement as to prices.

The production of the former factory amounts to some 1,500 to 2,000 tons annually, and the profit can not be less than 25 per cent on the sales.

Besides manufacturing nails, Messrs. Freisz & Co. galvanize wire, and formerly also used to galvanize iron plates, but they have given up the manufacture of the latter article as they did not find it pay.

Iron rivets and screws.—This industry was started fifteen years ago and has largely developed during the last ten years.

The two principal firms are: José Otonello & Co., fifteen years, 100 to 120 operatives, annual output \$400,000; Antonio Rezzonico, five years, 100 operatives, annual output \$300,000. The latter set up a foundry twenty years ago which became very important, and five years ago he added to it the manufacture of screws. (The data given refers solely to the latter.)

The capital of Otonello is calculated at some \$200,000, and that of Rezzonico at \$400,000.

As the import duty on these articles is 50 per cent, the introduction of large screws into this country is very limited, although the consumption of screws and rivets of small size is supplied by the imported articles.

The profit on these goods to the home producer is from 20 per cent to 30 per cent on the sales.

Iron bedsteads.—This industry has so spread in the country as entirely to dislodge the foreign article.

The principal factories are:

Name.	Year established.	Number of workmen.	Annual production.
Eugenio Cardini.....	1870	100	\$500,000
Luis Barisone.....	1884	20	70,000
A. Landini.....	1881	20	70,000
Rossi & Porrini.....	1880	12	40,000

Apart from the first of these, which has a very large capital and is doing a thriving business, the remainder scarcely make a livelihood, especially at the present time. This is due in part to the competition of the smaller manufacturers, who buy old beds and renew them.

In normal years these manufacturers make from 15 per cent to 20 per cent on sales. Importation has been made impossible by the duty of 50 per cent and the high exchange of gold; but even if the exchange were to go down it would be impossible to import bedsteads on account of the high freights.

Only a very few specially fine bedsteads are imported from abroad.

Manufacture of iron chests and boxes.—This industry has slowly conquered the market and excluded importation.

The following firms almost monopolize the business:

Name.	Years of existence.	Number of workmen.
1. Adolfo Bash	10	48
2. Widow of Felipe Schwarz	30	10
3. Bash Brothers & Co.	11	10
4. Angel Cunto	3	8
5. José Santamaría	3	4
6. Nicolás Vetere & Co.	3	12

None of these rely on a large capital: Nos. 2 and 3 combine this branch of industry with other metal manufacturers. The others give themselves entirely to chests, in the making of which No. 1, who has a high reputation for his work, imitates the English style of article, principally producing articles to be sold at public auction.

Adolfo Bash makes a profit of from 25 per cent to 30 per cent net on his chests and boxes; the other firms (concerning themselves chiefly with goods for auction) expect to make about 15 per cent or 20 per cent.

The importation of foreign chests has ceased.

Manufacture of scales.—This industry is almost monopolized by a firm which has been in existence for more than twenty-five years and has slowly succeeded in winning the confidence of consumers. It manufactures all sorts of spring balances from, 250 to 50,000 kilos, in every form and adaptable to all the different industries of the country, having at last contrived to exclude the imported article almost completely.

This firm has used North American types as a model, and has been able, with success, to supplant the various cast pieces by soft iron, steel, and wood, obtaining in this way a greater durability in finished pairs of scales. This success is also due, greatly, to want of confidence in castings of local manufacture.

The weighing machines, which exhibit two dials and weigh over 20 kilos, are chiefly manufactured in the country; steelyards and balances of smaller capacity are also manufactured, but to a less extent.

The factory referred to is that of Don Pedro Bianchetti. It is worked with a large capital, employs 50 workmen, and turns out an annual product of between 150,000 and 200,000 pesos, obtaining a profit of from 25 per cent to 35 per cent on sales.

Besides this firm there are the following: Juan Llinas, founded in 1885, with 20 workmen and annual sale of \$70,000; Antonio Sciegata, founded in 1889, with 5 workmen and annual sale of \$25,000. The capital of these is small and their goods are not widely known.

If the gold exchange does not fall 150 per cent, the manufacturers of the country can contend advantageously with the imported article, although the latter only pays 25 per cent import duty; and there can be no doubt that any factory which employs workshops which are not inferior to those of the North American foundries can compete not only with the imported article but with that which is manufactured elsewhere in Argentina.

Manufacture of carriages.—This industry has prospered greatly, nearly all the manufacturers being old-established firms with good capital.

Almost all the raw material for expensive carriages comes from abroad, and the rate of progress has been so rapid that carriages can now be manufactured in Argentina equal to the best imported, which, owing to heavy import duty, have almost entirely lost their market, while the pieces which compose the carriage, such as iron, steel, cloth, etc., only pay 25 per cent, and other supplementary articles, such as silks, moroccos, lace, etc., pay between 40 per cent and 50 per cent.

Owing to the greater economy exercised in recent years, and owing to the increased cost of hand labor, the carriage makers have been obliged to reduce not merely their hours of work for operations to eight hours, but to raise the rate of wages (the daily wage is now from \$3 to \$6), while also they employ fewer workmen than they did four or five years ago, and the profits are not so great as they used to be.

Among the firms may be mentioned the following:

Name.	Years of existence.	Number of workmen.	Capital.	Annual sale.
B. Cabral & Co	30	70		\$200,000
Juan Casadella	20	30	\$50,000	100,000
Moises Desmaras	20	30	80,000	100,000
Juan Duni	20	40	75,000	100,000
G. Fehling	80	60	250,000	200,000
Pedro Guetrat & Co	15	35	50,000	100,000
Enrique Kunter	10	20	15,000	60,000
A. Remou	12	60	100,000	150,000
Auguste Woell	30	45	150,000	120,000
San Yzetta	30	35	75,000	100,000

The profit obtained averages from 25 to 30 per cent on the sales.

The total number of workmen employed in this industry is from 800 to 1,000.

Those who at present get the best return for their money are those who manufacture cheap carriages; expensive ones are difficult to sell nowadays.

Manufacture of pianos.—This industry has developed very little in Argentina for want of capital; some 1,000 to 1,500 pianos are annually sold in the country, but of these not more than 30 or 40 are of native manufacture. Even in these latter the mechanical parts, keyboard, etc., are imported, the only part made here being the outer case of wood.

The principal manufacturers are:

Name.	Years of existence.	Number of workmen.	Annual product.
C. Hefermehl.....	22	6	12
J. Essensfelder.....	7	4	10
José Cuneo.....	10	4	10

The first of these has some \$100,000 of capital of his own, the others very little.

The manufacture of pianos is only carried on by these firms to occupy their workmen when they happen to have no other job on hand.

There is no doubt that this industry would offer an opportunity for making considerable profit, always supposing that it would be possible to overcome the prejudice against the home-made article, which could only be accomplished by a house with a world-wide reputation and great capital. Pianos pay an import duty of 25 per cent.

ENAMELED IRON: Domestic utensils, street plates, numbers, etc.—Three years ago there was founded a manufactory of these articles, but it was backed by little capital, was badly managed, and lacked technical direction, in charge of a person who had only recently learned his business sufficiently to turn out a presentable article. This firm smashed and the business was bought by Messrs. Paats, Roche & Co. on very advantageous terms; they have turned it into Oscar Schmitt & Co. and have set up at Barracas al Sud with a capital of \$80,000.

Owing to the fact that enameled iron is valued at \$0.40 (gold) per kilo and pays 25 per cent, while iron in sheets is valued at 4 cents per kilo and pays 5 per cent duty, together with the high freight which the finished article pays, on account of its weight and size, this industry is very lucrative, and the profit may amount to from 30 to 40 per cent on sales. As it is estimated that these goods are now imported to an annual value of something like 1,000,000 pesos, gold, it is plain that here is an opening for competent skill and sufficient capital.

Manufacture of beer.—This is a very important industry in Argentina, and is represented mainly by the following firms:

Name.	Founded.	Capital.	Production.	Possible production.
			<i>Hectoliters.</i>	<i>Hectoliters.</i>
Bleckert, joint stock company.....	1888	\$500,000	50,000	100,000
Quilmes, joint stock company.....	1891	frs. 7,000,000	80,000 to 90,000	150,000
Palermo, joint stock company.....	1898	\$1,000,000	30,000
Pegasus, joint stock company.....	1895	(a)	10,000	(a)
Río Segundo, joint stock company.....	1890	\$1,000,000	10,000	25,000

a Not stated.

The first of these occupies in the summer from 200 to 250 workmen, and in winter 120; and the second 400 in summer and 200 in winter. The article is sold by the two principal firms at 30 centavos per liter, and \$4 per dozen bottles, leaving from 1½ to 2½ centavos profit, net, on each liter, so that the Quilmes Brewery estimates that its net profit fluctuates between 12 per cent and 15 per cent on the capital.

All the breweries mentioned above are fitted out with the very latest machinery, and the importation of foreign beer has become almost nil.

Manufacture of matches.—For the last twelve years this industry has been developing to such a degree that lucifer matches are no longer imported into Argentina, except wax ones.

In 1889 there was formed a company which opened three principal establishments of this kind under the registered title "Compañía General de Fósforos," with a capital of \$2,000,000 (paper), which occupies itself not only with making matches, but with the manufacture of the boxes and the printing of the labels as well. It employs 1,200 operatives, men and women, and turns out annually 1,000,000 gross of boxes.

In 1896 this company made a net profit of \$400,000, of which sum they used \$122,000 toward paying off the debt and distributed the remainder in a dividend of 12 per cent.

Besides this, there are the following firms:

Name.	Years of exist- ence.	Production (gross).
J. San Miguel & Co.....	5	150,000
M. U. Onrubia	8	150,000
A. Cassaligna.....	2	75,000
Serafin Genta & Co.....	4	75,000

These now form serious competitors to the "Compañía General," and have forced it to bring down its prices to \$3.40 and \$3.50 per gross (inland tax \$1.44 per gross). It is estimated that their own average profit amounts to from 30 to 50 centavos per gross.

Lucifer matches of wood have not succeeded in becoming popular, perhaps owing to the want of economy which is prevalent in Argentina.

Cement.—According to competent persons, there exist at Azeel, Córdoba, and other parts of the country the primary materials required for this important article, namely, clay and lime. Nevertheless, although the high exchange of gold would indubitably have favored this article, no manufactory of cement has been established. Capital has been wanting, and it would be useless to begin without a certainty of being able to supply from 50,000 to 100,000 barrels annually; this would be the minimum from which profitable results could be expected.

Several attempts have been made, which have demonstrated to satisfaction that the local article is nowhere inferior to that imported; we understand that a movement is now on foot to collect sufficient capital to start this industry.

Small factories which have been started have always failed for want of necessary material.

Distilling.—This industry has developed to such an extent that the existing distilleries might produce three times as much as is consumed in the country. As a consequence, their owners have formed themselves into a union in order to work only those establishments which, owing to their installation and capacity of production, can make alcohol with the greatest economy, and the masters of all the distilleries forming the union share the profit.

The consumption is estimated at 30,000,000 liters annually, which is produced in the following proportion by the under-mentioned distilleries:

	Liters, monthly.
P. Griffero & Son	900,000
"La Estrella"	460,000
P. Varando	300,000
Sepp, Bros. & Co.....	480,000
Devoto	350,000
Genond, Benvenuto, Martelli & Co.....	430,000
E. Mattoddi.....	240,000
"La Rosario"	180,000
Several smaller companies.....	500,000

Monthly product 3,840,000

Thanks to the agreement between the distillers, and in spite of the charge of 60 cents per liter of excise duty (very likely to be raised to \$1), it has been possible to conduct this industry successfully, but if it had been left to open competition ruinous failure would have been the result.

The above-named firms all have large capital and have been established for the most part within the last fifteen years.

APPENDIX VI.

MEMORANDUM ON LOCAL FACTORIES VISITED.

(See page 75.)

Cotton weaving, etc.—I visited one of the principal of these factories, which I was assured by the managers employs nearly 1,000 hands. There are two motors, one English and one French, 220 horsepower between them, also a 40-horsepower engine for the electric light.

The chief and original business of this factory is hosiery and undershirts, which it also produces from wool, but it has 150 looms for weaving other cotton fabrics, and is, I believe, the only factory which does this work. It weaves trouserings, flannellettes, canvas, quilts, towels, etc., also a little linen goods.

Duties do not favor the making of light gray goods, but white shirtings are being made. The total output was stated to me at \$2,500,000 currency.

The yarn is imported from Italy, mostly twisted. The machinery comes from various countries—England, Germany, France, and America. I noticed that the machines for sizing and reeling yarn, and for arranging the pattern in the woof, were run each by its own 2-horsepower electromotor, connected with the general power in the works. These small electromotors were made locally, in fact all, except the casting, on the premises.

Woolen fabrics.—I visited two of these factories. One employs about 300 hands, has two steam motors (English) of about 300 (?) horsepower, and turns out about 300,000 kilos per annum.

The selling price is calculated on a basis of 8 francs per kilo. The staple work is Government cloth (see sample P. 1.), but gray military blankets with a few threads of cotton in them, livery cloth, ordinary white blankets, etc., are also produced.

The other factory, the owner of which has a hat factory adjoining, has two steam motors (English), of a combined power of 150 horse, and will shortly, I was told, have a total of 120 looms. Here serges, cashmeres, blankets, flannels, and ponchos are made. No cotton is used. The machinery is English and German.

It is to be noted that both the above cloth factories were bought from bankrupt estates.

Hats.—I also visited two of these factories, one of them being that referred to in a previous paragraph. This factory, together with the weaving factory alongside, employs 660 to 700 hands. It has two steam motors, one English, of about 95 horsepower, and the other French, of about 85, and turns out 2,600 to 2,800 hats per day, about two-thirds of which are wool and one-third rabbit-hair felt, perhaps a tenth of the total being hard felt.

The current quality of wool hat is reported sold by this factory at \$20 per dozen and retailed at \$2 per hat. The machinery appeared to be up to date, the hard felt being produced on a revolving cylinder with air pressure. I noticed that the boiler heat was utilized direct for drying hats by iron-grating floors and open wire shelves arranged above the boilers.

The other hat factory I visited has an English steam motor of 150 horsepower, employs about 400 hands, and turns out about 2,000 hats per day, about five-sixths being wool and the remainder hair.

This factory seems to make almost everything for itself, including gutta-percha basins, rubber piping, etc., about the only articles imported being the binding ribbon, fine prepared skins for making the linings, and rubber.

Bags and sacks.—One of the principal of these factories (which I visited) turns out from 8,000,000 to 12,000,000 bags in an average year. The ordinary grain sacks are made from Calcutta gunnies, 40 inches wide and about 10½ ounces to the yard, and the heavier ones, for bringing in maize from the fields, from 27-inch gunnies, weighing 16 ounces. Heavy sugar sacks are also made from 48-inch 26-ounce gunnies, with a blue stripe, and flour sacks from British osnaburgs.

A good deal of work is also done in making coverings from American cotton and other canvas for piles of wheat. The twine used is reported to be all Dundee. About 400 hands (women) are employed in summer, but only about 70 in the winter. The steam motor (English) is only 15 horsepower.

Alpargatas, or canvas shoes, with soles of plaited jute pressed hard, are made very largely in the country and form an important local industry. I visited the principal factory, employing from 600 to 1,000 hands, which has a steam motor of 300 horsepower, about to be increased to 600.

The output just now is reduced to 600 dozen per day, which means a daily consumption of 400 bales of jute, 1,500 yards of canvas, and 900 yards of tape, besides Dundee twine.

The shoes are put up in dozens, and the dozens tied and pressed into little bales, which are roped, sewn up in Hessians, and marked outside with the number of the shoe (No. 7 has, perhaps, the largest sale) for dispatch to the provinces. The normal price is \$6 per dozen pairs. The machinery is almost all English, and the factory is now making its own cotton canvas from P_1 , P_1 , and P_3 yarns.

Iron works.—I visited the principal of these, which works in wrought iron, and is the only roller of bar iron in the country. (See my letter under the heading of "Old iron for remanufacture," p. 66.)

It has three furnaces, locally made rolling mills, and turns out about 5,000 tons per annum. This figure includes, besides bar iron, a variety of agricultural implements, etc., e. g., screws for tightening wire fences, iron droppers, well pulleys, gates,

sowers, plows, etc. It owns a patent for the droppers, the horizontal section of which forms a cross, through the center of which the wire passes.

Wire nails.—I visited the principal factory of these, which has three steam motors of a combined power of 85 horse and employs about 110 operatives. The wire is imported, the highest number being No. 7, although a little No. 8 is also bought. It is cleaned, worked, and drawn out into higher numbers, the highest being 26, some being bronzed with a solution of sulphate of copper, some being galvanized, and what is not made into nails is sold.

The nails are made of all sizes in machines (German, I believe), which cut the wire and form the head and point of the nail at one operation, so that they have only to be cleaned in revolving drums with sawdust and oil and a little scrap iron to be finished. They are then put up mostly in 2-kilo paper packets.

Enameled iron.—The principal factory in this industry, and the only one which makes hollow ware, this being in fact its chief product, I have visited, and refer to my letter under the heading of "Hollow ware" in regard to same (see p. 60). The mixtures for the glazes are kept secret, but among other things used are kaolin and solvæ. The quantities required are small, and are bought in this market.

Matches.—I visited the principal works of the big company which does the great bulk of the trade and employs in all about 1,500 to 1,600 hands. The outturn is stated at 8,000,000 to 12,000,000 boxes, all wax matches, each containing 47 to 48 matches, in a month. The boxes are put up in dozens tied together by paper straps, and in six dozens packed in a cardboard box; 30 of such cardboard boxes, say 15 gross of small boxes, being usually packed in wooden cases for dispatch up country.

The present price, brought down by the competition of small factories, is only \$2.90 per gross, of which \$1.44 goes to the Government in the shape of a 1-cent stamp on each box, leaving, after deduction of selling commission, etc., only about \$1.30 net cash to the factory. This price is for the ordinary light-weight match, but a certain quantity of a heavier make is also produced.

Common wooden matches are not wanted in the country, but there is a small import of safety matches.

The department for making the boxes and lithographing labels connected with this factory is admirably equipped; and, in fact, has come to be a severe competitor with other concerns in executing lithographic work for general purposes. I have seen some very good work executed in seventeen colors.

The motor power of the factory I visited was German, two engines equal to 150 horse, and the machinery all German or Italian, and some made on the premises.

The phosphorus is imported from England, also the chlorate of potash (but sometimes the latter comes from France), yarn for making wick from Italy, and lithographers' varnish from (?) Germany. Paper, too, comes mostly from Italy or Germany, but cardboard is bought of local manufacture, and also the stearine.

Biscuits.—I visited the principal factory, which employs about 120 hands and has a steam motor of 60 horsepower. The machinery is English, on the continuous-oven system. The tins are made on the premises, about 3,000 cases of tin plates being used annually, as mentioned in my letter (see p. 68). The labels are lithographed by a local company. The biscuits are all sent out under the factory's own mark and a 10-kilo tin contains 10 kilos, I am assured.

This factory also produces a well-known liquor, special bottles for which still come from England.

Confectionery.—I have already referred in my letter to the sweetmeat factory visited (see p. 71). The machinery is mostly French, except the caramel machines mentioned. The owner also has a fruit-canning factory, and employs about 200 hands altogether in the fruit season, but not more than half that for the rest of the year.

Oil, paints, and varnish.—Under the headings of "Seed oil" and "Paints, etc.," in my letter, I have already referred to the factory visited. The steam motor is an English one of 30 horsepower.

Tin work.—I have also referred, under the heading of "Tin plates," to the factory visited in this trade (see p. 68). It employs only about 70 hands now, but in busy times expects to have 200 by day and 100 by night. The owner told me he had given up making the ordinary fruit cans, which is the principal branch of the local tin trade, on account of the competition in these, and especially in order to take up the making of the locust trap described, as well as of another locust trap on quite a different principle, specially adapted for rough ground, but was continuing the making of tins and canisters of a high grade for special purposes.

Shot, and lead tubes containing perfume ("pomax").—I was not admitted into what is doubtless the largest factory as regards the latter article (one of large consumption). This is the only instance, so far, I may add, in which I have been denied admittance to a factory. According to the owner's statement he has 4 machines for making these tubes, each of which, tended by 1 man, can turn out 15,000 tubes daily. The first of these machines he got made in the United States in two months, after fruitless attempts in England for a year and a half to get it made there. The

second he got from the United States, and two he has had made here. When the tubes are made he gives them a bath of tin by electricity, and can coat thus 30,000 a day with 4 men.

Paper making on an extensive scale is carried on at a fine factory to the north, on the railroad to Rosario, which I visited. These works have 12 steam motors aggregating 1,200 horsepower, 25,000 meters roofed in, and employ 700 hands. The machinery is from various countries, including some made in this. I saw one machine which throws off 400 meters of paper per minute, say 20 tons if paper be thick and 10 tons if thin, per day. The total output of the factory, annually, is about 9,000,000 kilos. This includes a large quantity for the Buenos Ayres newspapers, only two of which are said to still import. Wood pulp is imported mostly by sailing vessels direct from Sweden to the factory wharf, but more material is gradually being procured in the country, chiefly rag and old paper, and it is hoped to reduce the import to a very small figure ere long. Caustic soda and solvæ are also imported. Large granite stones for grinding the pulp, etc., are now produced in the country, and said to be superior to those hitherto imported from the Continent of Europe.

Tobacco factory.—I visited an admirably appointed one in Rosario, which employs from 350 to 400 hands, has boilers of large steam capacity for use in the treatment of the tobacco, and a 25-horsepower engine. Cigars and smoking tobacco are produced, but the chief product of the factory is cigarettes. For making these there are 7 machines, 6 of which have a capacity of 250 cigarettes per minute. I inclose a sample packet * * * of the cigarette which has the largest consumption. The sales of this cigarette amount to 1,000,000 packets, of 14 cigarettes each, per month. The tobacco used, no matter what the product is styled, is, I understand, all Bahia, and that which is used for the cigarette just referred to, and lower qualities, has the nicotine extracted from it in great measure, with the object of making sheep dip, which constitutes an important by-product of the factory. The price of the cigarette represented by the sample is 20 cents per packet to the public, and on this cigarette the makers have to pay 5 cents a packet to the Government, in the form of an excise stamp, which is attached before the cigarettes go out. A lower quality of cigarette at 10 cents per packet, whose monthly sale amounts to 200,000 packets, pays only 1 cent to the Government, and a higher quality at 30 cents per packet (made, it may be remarked, of tobacco from which no nicotine has been extracted) pays 6 cents per packet to the Government.

Sugar refining is in the hands of one factory, which supplies almost the entire consumption, estimated at over 30,000 tons per annum. This factory, which is at Rosario, I visited. It covers an extensive area, has complete railway connections, deep-water frontage (where sea-going vessels discharge), and appears to be thoroughly equipped. The machinery is of diverse origin, having been bought wherever it was deemed most suitable. The principal motors, about 600 horsepower altogether, and boilers (10) are Swiss; a new large vacuum pan is German; new installation for revivifying animal charcoal is English, etc. About 800 hands are employed. The factory closes for three months in the summer. Only high-class sugar is produced, and the residual molasses is now sold to distilleries or thrown away, a fine distilling plant of 8,000 liters daily capacity lying idle, as at 76 cents for the spirit there was, it was found, barely a return of cost after paying 60 cents revenue tax. No loaves are made, the chief products being tablets and broken lump. I saw the former being packed direct in 20-kilo wooden boxes (present price, \$11), the pieces for making which come cut to size, tied in bundles with wire, direct from Sweden. Tablets are sometimes packed in tin boxes of 2 kilos each (present price, \$1.25, tablets larger). I forward one of these tins, numbering it 608, as it may be of interest, and call attention to the tin, made and printed in Buenos Ayres. Bags are imported, ready-made, from England, the factory having the privilege of free import.

Glass works.—The most important of these, by far, I have visited. It employs about 300 operatives and has 3 furnaces, 2 of which are divided, respectively, into 12 and 10 crucibles. The furnaces are fed by gas tar furnished by local gas works, and the consumption of this combustible amounts to 125,000 liters monthly. The sand comes from Fontainebleau, the solvæ (58 per cent) from England (consumption about 24 tons per month), the arsenic and nitrate of soda from the Continent. The existing stock of broken glass amounts, I was informed, to \$30,000 worth. A large cellar constructed under the yard contains 1,000,000 liters of gas tar.

The factory seems prosperous, and a fourth furnace, I understand, is about to be erected. The product is varied, but consists very largely, naturally, of the 3 principal articles of use in the country—namely, wineglasses, gin and other bottles (except beer), and demijohns. The wickerwork (from native osiers) is worked upon the latter on the premises. The daily output of wineglasses of all sizes, I was informed, amounts to 300 dozen. Aerated water siphons and lamps are made; the former entirely in the works; the latter as regards the glass bodies and the fixing on the mounts.

APPENDIX VII.

SUPPLEMENT TO THE PHILADELPHIA "MANUFACTURER," FEBRUARY 5, 1896.

[See page 76.]

TO OUR FOREIGN READERS:

The *Manufacturer*, as stated in our letter of last month, is published by the Manufacturers' Club, of Philadelphia, United States of America, an organization composed of over 1,000 of the largest manufacturing firms in the United States. This body was organized over ten years ago for the purpose of advancing the manufacturing interests of the country. Many of the firms represented in the organization have a large foreign trade, and for the purpose of extending such business the club has decided to issue a monthly foreign edition of its journal in addition to its regular weekly number. The paper is edited by specialists on economic subjects, and will deal directly with all questions pertaining to the development and expansion of American trade.

The name of your firm has been suggested to us as one that is interested in the importation of American products, manufactured and otherwise. This month's international edition will interest you, and we trust you will read it carefully, as it will give you a fund of information pertaining to American affairs.

Our advertisers we again beg to call your attention to. They are the representative firms in the United States in their particular line, and have been established for years. You will find it to your advantage to order such material as you may desire direct from them or through your shippers in America. Should you not find what you need write to us and we will find it for you, without charge.

Any information you may desire, pertaining to American interests, we will be pleased to give you. We ask, in exchange, that, in writing to our advertisers, you mention *The Manufacturer*.

Yours very truly,

ALVIN HUNSICKER,
Business Manager.

The *Manufacturer*, in order to secure sufficient knowledge from which to prepare articles for publication in regard to the state of trade in different foreign countries, desire information along the line of answers to the following questions, namely:

Have there been any transactions or contracts made recently with American firms?

Have there been any transactions or contracts made recently with European firms?

Of what nature were these contracts?

What are the opportunities for a development of business with the manufacturing and shipping industries of the United States?

What improvements in a local way, public or otherwise, are projected?

What is the temper of the business community with respect to reciprocity treaties with the United States?

Are local political relations, elections, etc., likely to interfere with the free movement of trade?

Are there any proposed changes in the tariff, and what changes in this direction are needed to increase commerce?

How should goods be packed for shipment to your country?

What are steamship connections and railway facilities from the ports to the interior of the country?

What are the dock charges, warehouse facilities, etc.?

What are the chief industries of the country and city in which you are located? How many firms are engaged?

Can you give abstracts from statistical reports of the Government concerning exports, imports, etc.

What lines of goods are imported to your country, and from what countries do they come?

Are the imports from other countries larger than from the United States? If so, why is this the case?

What do you consider to be the best course to take to improve the commercial relations between our country and yours?

How are the banking relations? Can exchange be effected easily with New York and other American cities?

Can you give us other items of interest concerning the commercial and economic development of your country of general importance and utility?

NOTE.—We would appreciate as full a reply to each question as possible, and also such other information pertaining to your country as may not have been suggested by the above series of questions.

We are willing to pay for information of the above nature. Will you not mention this fact to some reliable importing firm interested in American goods, or to some responsible individual who is capable of furnishing the information we desire? We can be of great value to an importing house handling American goods, and trust many may become interested in our work.

Send all communications to *The Manufacturer*, Philadelphia, United States of America.

FOURTH REPORT.

BRAZIL—Part I.

RIO DE JANEIRO, *November 4, 1898.*

THE SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

SIR: I arrived at this place, the northern limit of my commission, on the 31st of August last. Rio de Janeiro, the federal capital of the United States of Brazil, with a population, according to the last census (1890), of 522,651, is not only by far the largest town in Brazil, but is the most important commercial center and largest port of entry in the whole country. It is naturally the chief center of the import trade for southern tropical Brazil, although São Paulo, with the port of Santos, seems to be rapidly taking an increased share of the business.

In proceeding to study the import trade and native manufacturing business here, in order to carry out the inquiry ordered by your letter of the 21st of December last, I have been met at the outset by the fact that there are no actual import returns available, nor any of national manufactures.

What would have been of most service in studying the trade in this part of Brazil would have been figures showing the imports into Rio and Santos; but, with the exception of those kept by the *Jornal do Commercio*, taken from the manifests of vessels entering Rio day by day, and published in the *Jornal's* annual "Retrospectivo," I have found nothing here; these figures are useful as far as they go, but they only cover a few special articles. The figures for the whole country, published by the Government, only come down to 1894, and, for reasons referred to later on in reference to custom-house matters, can not, I am assured, be regarded as quite accurate.

By the courtesy of the editor of the *Brazilian Review*, however, I have obtained the following statistics for the whole of Brazil (which have not yet been published in extenso), taken from the export returns of the several countries named, viz:

Country.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
Great Britain	<i>a</i> 28,067,768	<i>a</i> 27,826,566	<i>a</i> 27,643,739	<i>a</i> 26,983,046	<i>a</i> 25,006,206
France	4,312,777	4,898,394	4,777,414	4,288,960	3,481,154
Germany <i>b</i>	3,382,898	3,118,452	3,909,371	3,126,517	2,574,095
Belgium	1,469,082	977,523	1,765,101	2,234,163	1,038,164
Austria	158,760	187,733	217,600	256,497	Not stated.
Italy	Not stated.	229,260	628,291	536,119	Not stated.
Portugal	1,710,666	1,454,300	1,678,454	1,502,748	1,251,549
United States	Not stated.	3,319,258	2,905,405	2,500,489	2,835,934
Argentina	2,209,944	2,750,743	1,601,773	1,947,339	1,722,598
Uruguay	1,169,205	1,709,558	1,464,076	1,540,858	1,263,390
Total	22,431,050	26,471,787	26,651,224	24,916,726	19,863,180

a Corrected figures.

b The German figures above relate to German products only; all the others include reexports, etc., i. e., they cover the whole of the exports from the countries named.

If we take from the above figures the averages of the first three years, and compare them with those of the last three, we obtain for the first four countries named the results shown in the following table, viz:

Country.	Average of—		Increase (+) or decrease (—).	
	1893-1895.	1895-1897.	Amount.	Per cent.
United Kingdom.....	£7,846,000	£6,774,000	— £1,072,000	—13.7
France.....	4,663,000	4,182,000	— 481,000	—10.3
Germany.....	3,473,000	3,223,000	— 250,000	— 7.2
Belgium.....	1,404,000	1,679,000	+ 275,000	+19.6

I am aware that so far this year British exports to Brazil have increased considerably, compared with 1897, but we have yet to learn what the German and other figures are. Moreover, the custom-house tariff this year, according to what the collector (inspector da alfandega) told me, is estimated to be something like 25 per cent lower all round, and this is probably the principal cause of the increase.

The import trade is in many hands. A large, and I am disposed to think increasing, proportion of it is done direct by means of travelers, or local representatives, between European shipping houses (or manufacturers) and native dealers. Some idea of the importance of the business done in this manner may be had from considering that the total of European (and American) collections by drafts through Rio alone, based on figures I have obtained from the five leading non-Brazilian banks, must have amounted to something like £2,500,000 to £3,000,000 last year, while a very large sum must be added to represent the business done in account current—that is, where the buyers are allowed to remit more or less as they are able. As already intimated, there is no means of getting at the exact value of imports into Rio and Santos, but they are estimated approximately at £10,000,000 to £12,000,000, which may serve as a basis in considering the foregoing. A large amount of hardware and miscellaneous business is done by merchants here (who have houses in Europe) getting orders and importing for account of orderers. Indeed, so far as regards British merchants, there seems to be very little own-account business, except in the dry-goods trade.

National industries are fostered by the protective tariff, and their products form in some lines the most serious competitors with imports, but in others they do not appear to flourish, or are more or less dependent on the condition of exchange. The largest and most developed of these industries is that of manufacturing the raw cotton of the country. I will refer to these national industries in a separate memorandum. (See p. 114.)

The usual terms of payment are, in the dry-goods trade, four to six months from end of month; and in the hardware trade ninety days from end of month; but four months is, I am told, given by some merchants importing on own account. In account current direct business terms of payment are very elastic, as already intimated, and probably in some lines none of our competitors make them more so than do British shippers. Indeed, I have been told the latter are practically the only ones working on this system in dry goods. Indents given to merchants here are usually on the basis of cash in ninety days from arrival of goods from Europe, or sixty days and sometimes thirty days from the United States. National factories generally sell at ninety days.

Exchange has fluctuated so much this year (namely, from about 7d. at the beginning to 5½d. in April and May, to 7¼d. at the date of my arrival here, and from that again up to 8½d. on 10th instant, while at the date of this letter it is 8½d.) that import business has been much

interfered with. In addition to this, the very low price of coffee, the chief product of this part of Brazil, makes the people poor and reduces demand to a minimum. The rapid rise in exchange must be kept in view in connection with currency prices in this report, for it makes it difficult to tell on what basis of exchange sales or quotations were really made.

The custom-house, while at present giving no advantage in any way to the products of one country over those of another, presents some difficulties. For one thing, changes are liable to be made somewhat arbitrarily and at short notice. A large importer put it to me, perhaps rather strongly, by saying "that one may study the custom-house tariff and custom-house laws thoroughly, and then find something one had not noticed to upset one's calculations or something one had relied upon revoked." Again, while efforts have been made from time to time to abolish abuses in the collection of the customs—and the best intentions must be credited to the higher authorities and many of the officials in regard to the same—yet owing to circumstances it is needless to dilate upon here it must I fear be admitted that the practical working of the custom-house, although doubtless much better here than in the out-ports, is not all it should be as a medium for collecting the revenue according to the tariff, and that, as a consequence, it is liable to produce at times an unfair species of competition, at least in some trades. I refer to the additional report (Annexos ao Relatorio "B") of the finance minister for last year in evidence of this, and I mention it because it undoubtedly has an effect upon business in certain lines, while it must also detract from the value of any statistics based on custom-house returns. Merchants established here can have their own clerks to dispatch their goods, giving the Government a guaranty with them, but otherwise an authorized "Despachante" (sworn custom-house broker), working at an established tariff of charges, must be employed. Too much care can not be exercised in complying with all custom-house requirements in regard to the documentation of goods. Custom-house store rent is rather heavy. I inclose a pamphlet in regard to goods liable to it, etc., which shows the method of charging same. (See Appendix I.)

In the following report, in which the classification called for by your letter of December 21 last * * * is adopted as far as possible, it is to be noted that, when not otherwise stated, prices are wholesale, and when in currency they are expressed in milreis and reis; thus one and a half milreis is 1\$500. Terms of credit are as heretofore stated, and duties are taken from the tariff now in force. * * *

ARMS AND AMMUNITION.

(a) *Firearms (small).*—Revolvers are American (Smith & Wesson), with cheap Belgian and American imitations. Spanish-made imitations of Smith & Wesson's revolvers are also sold and are very cheap. I saw one marked "New York," and with a horse head on the handle, said to have cost 7½ francs. Another, marked "Smith Wesson's cartridges will be found to fit best this revolver" and with some initials on the handle, said to have cost 14 francs. The sale of revolvers, however, is probably not one-twentieth that of small double-barreled pistols which come from Belgium. Shotguns from Belgium also prevail, the prices being very much cheaper than English. For example, I saw a Belgian gun said to cost 105 francs, less 10 per cent and 5 per cent, of the same pattern as an English gun costing £21, less 20 per cent and 5 per cent. Nevertheless, a small number of English guns are imported for those who care to pay for them.

(b) *Gunpowder* is made in the country, but the local product apparently only supplies a portion of the demand, notwithstanding that, owing to the overstocking of imported powder, none has been coming from abroad for a considerable time. Imports have been both English and German or Belgian. Powder is not wanted put up in tins except to a comparatively small extent, and a large dealer told me he was emptying all his tins and repacking in barrels of 14 kilos, the form of package suited for upcountry, where the shot cartridges are loaded locally. Mining powder is all made in the country, as powder so made can be sold, it is said, for about the amount of the duty payable on importations.

(c) *Of all other kinds.*—Cartridges for revolvers and pistols are imported loaded. Pistol cartridges used to come from England, but the French make, with the flat instead of convex percussion cap, has now taken their place, and sells at about the same price, viz, 70\$000 to 75\$000 per thousand. German imitations are said to be offered at less than half this price. Empty shot cartridges are imported from France.

Shot is made in the country, but is of poor quality. The Newcastle chilled shot is liked best, but a cheaper American product is now coming and winning its way to favor. The makers of this shot, it may be remarked, send buyers a beautifully got up sample case, about 15 by 4 by 2 inches, with samples of the various sizes in glass tubes. This is said to be, as will be readily understood, a vast assistance to travelers of upcountry buyers.

The Government make their own powder to a large extent, but obtain their other supplies of ammunition and war material either through their own commissioner in Europe or through agents here of the large ordnance, etc., makers.

Bags (empty).—Hessian bags, for coffee, are made in the country from imported jute yarn, the industry being protected by a duty of 1\$000 per kilogram on the bags and 0\$750 per kilogram on hessian cloth, against 0\$100 per kilogram on jute yarn. As the coffee crop amounts to some 8,000,000 to 10,000,000 bags, and a different bag is used for bringing the coffee from upcountry, heavier than that in which it is packed for shipment (although it is true the former serves for several journeys), while a certain amount of double bagging is done for shipment, it will be seen that the industry is an important one. In the recent rise in exchange I understand that, owing to the factories, which held large stocks of hessians at the time, having failed to drop their prices promptly, considerable orders were cabled for hessian cloth.

Cotton flour bags are imported from England, but are now also made, I understand, at Bahia.

Beer and ale.—The national breweries, worked either on the German or American plan, now practically supply the demand, a comparatively trifling quantity of specialties being all that is imported. The following figures, showing the imports for three years into Rio, may be of interest:

Imported from—	1895.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Cases.</i>	<i>Cases.</i>	<i>Cases.</i>
The United Kingdom	6, 136	1, 672	1, 711
Germany	38, 818	3, 373	924
Belgium and other countries	9, 309	2, 225	410
Total	54, 263	7, 270	3, 045

Biscuits and bread.—Biscuits are made in the country. They are not equal in quality to those imported, so that, notwithstanding the heavy duty (1\$000 per kilo), some are still brought from England and France.

Books, printed.—No foreign copyright is recognized. The import of books printed in English is very small, and even of Portuguese translations I am assured on excellent trade authority that 2,000 is quite a good circulation for a book to have; 5,000 would be enormous.

Candles of all sorts.—There is a large quantity of stearine candles manufactured in the country, equivalent it is estimated to something like one-half the consumption, the other half being furnished by imports, chiefly from Belgium, English candles being too dear. Favorite marks are the "Apollo" and "Olichy," the latter being the cheaper of the two. A native candle, very like the "Apollo," can, it is said, be made to sell wholesale at about 20\$000 per 10 kilos, while the imported article, at cost of, say, 71s. per 100 kilos f. o. b., would require a considerably higher price. Duty on imported stearine candles is 1\$200 per kilo.

Carriages and wagons, railway.—The United States have, I understand, heretofore been the chief purveyors of these. A certain amount of building is done by the railway companies (or some of them) themselves, importing what raw or partly manufactured material, such as axles and steel tires, special fittings, etc., they require, and there is also a national factory which builds railway carriages.

Cement.—Formerly a large business used to be done in English cement, but now the great bulk of the trade is in Belgian and German makes. The latter, although admittedly inferior in quality, can be sold at 15\$000 per barrel, as against about 24\$000 which would be required for the English at the advanced price recently put upon it. Continental shippers have also an advantage usually in sailing freights, weight cargo being scarcer from their ports than from British.

Cement comes in barrels weighing 150 kilos gross, and is sold per barrel; duty is 0\$020 per kilo on gross weight, less a tare of 10 per cent.

Chemical products and dye stuffs.—Aniline dyes are principally used. I understand such dyes all come from Germany, and one house keeps a traveler on the coast, an expert who explains the method of using the dyes he sells and is at hand to attend to complaints, correct errors, etc. It is not surprising that he gets most of the trade.

Vitriol, for bleaching purposes, comes from England, but is also made locally, the local manufacture being of inferior quality.

Coal.—The strike in the South Wales colliery districts gave a great incentive to the efforts being made to introduce Pocahontas and other American coal here to replace Cardiff coal, and had it not been for the Spanish-American war occurring about the same time, the result would have been more apparent. As it was, however, several cargoes of American coal actually came, and, moreover, one was consigned to the largest dealer in the place, and another to one of the largest European steamship lines. The cost of these two cargoes is reported to have been 6s. 6d. per ton f. o. b., and freight 21s. in the one case and 18s. in the other. Great efforts are being made, I am told, to capture the railway orders. The inclosed cutting relating to tenders for the Government railway may be of interest. (See Appendix II.)

England has had all the coal trade in Brazil heretofore (except for a small amount of soft native coal in Rio Grande and some American gas coal), and the import amounted last year to 532,437 tons to this port alone.

Cordage and twine.—Cordage for marine uses is mostly imported from England. There is some United States competition, and for use on a winch the American rope is said to be preferred as being drier and slipping less. For general uses, agricultural, roping bales, tying mule packs, parcel string, etc., national factories supply the market. They use chiefly Madras "sunn" hemp. Seaming twine for sewing the coffee bags used to be all imported, but is now largely made locally from Italian tow ("*Estopa pitinata*"). I forward samples of this twine

* * * as follows:

* * * A hank of 3-ply seaming twine for bags, costing 3\$300 per packet of 1 kilo. These hanks are for sewing up the ends of the bags; hanks of greater length are made for sides. Manufacturers say that this twine is often sold in hanks as German, the price of which is 4\$000 per kilo.

* * * A bobbin of 2-ply twine, same quality as 3-ply, made in hanks for bagging, the 2-ply being used for thin and the 3-ply for thick bags. For bagging all twine must be in hanks. This twine is put up in parcels of 800 grams, 6, 8, 12, or 24 bobbins in a parcel, according to size of bobbins; price, 3\$000 per parcel for 2-ply, or 2\$800 for 3-ply, with 200 reis extra when all the bobbins are of the smallest size, i. e., 24 to the parcel.

Corn.—(a) Wheat comes in free of duty, and is a large article of import. I have seen no complete statistics of the imports, but the following figures of receipts (in tons) by the two large mills in this city—one British and the other national—may be of interest, as they cover, probably, the major portion of the trade, viz:

	1895.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>	<i>Tons.</i>
River Plate	a 59,321	a 82,156	57,180
United States			21,614
Total	59,321	82,156	78,794

a Not separated. United States quite trifling.

(b) Wheat flour is partly imported and partly ground (chiefly in the two mills above referred to) from imported wheat. The figures as to the imports into Rio are as follows:

	1895.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>	<i>Barrels.</i>
United States	291,060	287,907	252,901
River Plate	136,969	106,144	65,797
England			9,850
Austria	3,580	1,435	4,395
Chile		449	3,500
Output of the 2 mills referred to in barrels of 90 kilos each a	431,609 447,202	375,985 607,700	336,533 584,707

a Flour is actually packed here in sacks of 45 kilos.

(c) *Of other kinds.*—Maize used to be imported largely from the River Plate, but this year the import has fallen off to a comparatively small figure, more being now grown in the country. The fall in coffee prices has demonstrated to agriculturists here the danger of having all their eggs in one basket.

Cotton yarn.—A certain amount is imported, chiefly from England, but I am informed that owing to the duty, which is 540 reis per kilo on gray, 660 reis on white, and 750 reis on dyed yarn, the margin on weaving from imported yarn is very slender. Moreover, the great majority of weavers are also spinners of the native cotton grown in the more northern provinces of the Republic. This cotton, as is well known, is long stapled but coarse, and the highest counts spun in the native mills, which have nothing but ring spinning, are from 50s to 60s.

I forward samples of yarn as made by one of the spinning and weaving mills here for their own use. * * *

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

(a) *Piece goods.*—In *white goods*, practically the only competitors of British manufacturers are national. I forward sample pieces of various makes of national shirting of the most salable qualities, giving prices (based on exchange about 8d.) and also duties, numbered as follow, viz:

(8) "Boquet das Moças," 24½ inches wide; weight, 1,270 grams per piece; duty to import, 2\$794 per piece; price 6\$300 per piece.

(9) "Fim de Seculo," 28 inches wide; weight, 1,600 grams per piece; duty to import, 3\$520 per piece; price 9\$000 per piece.

(10) "Dos Presidentes," 30 inches wide; weight, 1,690 grams per piece; duty to import, 3\$718 per piece; price 8\$800 per piece.

(11) "Percalle BBB," 30 inches wide; weight, 1,510 grams per piece; duty to import, 3\$322 per piece; price 9\$600 per piece.

(12) "Pinga Fina," 31½ inches wide; weight, 2,210 grams per piece; duty to import, 4\$862 per piece; price 11\$600 per piece.

(13) "Cretonne Excelsior," 31 inches wide; weight, 2,440 grams per piece; duty to import, 5\$368 per piece; price 10\$400 per piece.

(15) "Gata," 30 inches wide; weight, 1,920 grams per piece; duty to import, 3\$840 per piece; price 9\$200 per piece.

(16) "Flores," 27½ inches wide; weight, 1,550 grams per piece; duty to import, 3\$100 per piece; price 8\$400 per piece.

It will be observed that whites are usually made in pieces of 20 meters.

Cotton flannels have dropped out of use to a great extent, being replaced by woolen fabrics, made chiefly in the southern provinces.

Gray cottons are almost entirely of national make, although doubtless the recent rise in exchange will bring some from England. I forward sample pieces of various makes of national goods of some of the most saleable qualities, giving prices (based on exchange about 8d.) and also duties as follow, viz:

(1) "T. T.," 26½ inches wide; weight, 106 grams per meter; duty to import, 159 reis per meter; price 400 reis per meter.

(2) "Estrella do Sul," 26½ inches wide; weight, 109 grams per meter; duty to import, 163½ reis per meter; price 450 reis per meter.

(3) "E. Bilontragen," 24 inches wide; weight, 85 grams per meter; duty to import, 127½ reis per meter; price 340 reis per meter.

(4) "O mais procurado," 27 inches wide; weight, 105 grams per meter; duty to import, 157½ reis per meter; price 420 to 400 reis per meter.

(5) "X. 2," 22 inches wide; weight, 62½ grams per meter; duty to import, 94 reis per meter; price 290 reis per meter.

(6) "X. 8," 26 inches wide; weight, 93 grams per meter; duty to import, 139½ reis per meter; price 370 reis per meter.

(7) "X. 14," 26 inches wide; weight, 118 grams per meter; duty to import, 177 reis per meter; price 460 reis per meter.

(17) "Crown," 26 inches wide; weight, 231 grams per meter; duty to import, 346 reis per meter; price 780 reis per meter.

Also a small sample—

(19) "T. S.," drills, 67 centimeters wide; price 900 reis per meter.

Prints are produced successfully in the country, but it is naturally impossible for national factories to undertake the immense variety of patterns offered from abroad, and therefore there is still a large sale of imported printed fabrics. In these the competition with English is not important; it is mostly in dark grounds. Of national goods I forward samples as follows, viz:

* * * One broad cutting, 69 to 70 centimeters wide (pink and white).

* * * Two broad cuttings, 69 to 70 centimeters wide (white ground—one striped, one fancy).

* * * No. 18265, 67½ centimeters wide.

* * * No. 19597, 67½ centimeters wide.

* * * No. 16543

* * * No. 22326

* * * No. 20415

* * * No. 17455

* * * No. D.

} Width about as above.

Price of any of the above was quoted 650 reis per meter, but doubtless 600 reis on the basis of an exchange about 6d. would be accepted. Duty to import would be 3\$800 per kilogram.

In *wove-colored goods, gingham, oxfords, trouserings, zephyrs, etc.*, the national factories supply a large proportion of the demand, and, owing to the excellence of the cotton used, it is difficult for imported goods to compete, except in some poor makes for which there is not a great requirement; nevertheless, imported goods do compete, at least in certain lines, and Italian goods are noted as coming particularly to the front. I forward samples of oxfords, trouserings, gingham, etc., of national makes, and have to explain, with regard to the particulars stated, that I think the exchange will probably have been based on a rate not over 7½d. in most of these cases (the last three probably at 8d.), and that pieces are usually 20 meters in length, 10 pieces making a bale, viz:

* * * National made goods, 66 to 67 centimeters wide, price 1\$000 per meter (all or any).

* * * National made goods, 65 to 66 centimeters wide, price 1\$250 per meter (all or any).

* * * National made goods, 65 to 66 centimeters wide, 1\$400 per meter (both or either).

* * * National made goods, 65 centimeters wide, price 1\$400 per meter.

* * * National made goods, 65 to 66 centimeters wide, price 1\$450 per meter.

* * * National made goods, 66 to 66 centimeters wide, price 1\$700 per meter (both or either).

* * * National made goods, 65 centimeters wide, price 0\$850 per meter (all or any).

* * * National made goods, 65 centimeters wide, price 0\$750 per meter (all or any).

* * * National made goods ("Briu Industria"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$780 per meter (all or any).

* * * National made goods ("Brin Rhenania"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$920 per meter (all or any).

* * * National made goods ("Riscado Federal"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$600 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Riscado Estrella"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$720 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Riscado Pernambuco"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$800 per meter (all or any).

* * * National made goods ("Mezcla grossa"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$880 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Mezcla sortida"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$880 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Mezcla diagonal"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$900 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Mezcla Trancada"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$940 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Riscado Trancado Americano"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$860 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Brin 1a"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$880 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Brin Fluminense"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$800 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Brin Brazil"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 1\$100 per meter.

* * * National made goods ("Oxford Liso"), 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$700 per meter. 14 is a piece sample; weight, 122 grams per meter. Duty 244 reis per meter.

* * * National made goods, 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 0\$850 per meter.

* * * National made goods, 66 to 67 centimeters wide, price 1\$300 (now probably 1\$250) per kilo; weight about 160 grams (a piece of 47 meters weighed 7½ kilos).

* * * Native made striped gingham, 69 centimeters wide; a piece of 60 meters weighs 7,300 grams; price 720 reis per meter.

* * * Native made gingham, 69 to 70 centimeters wide, price 730 reis per meter for checks and 720 reis for stripes.

* * * Native made gingham, 65 to 67 centimeters wide, price 680 reis per meter.

Of imported goods I forwarded samples as follows, viz:

* * * German (so reported) trouserings, 65 centimeters wide, price 1\$500 per meter, at 8d. exchange.

* * * Italian gingham, 70 centimeters wide, price about 800 reis per meter, at 7d. exchange.

* * * Italian gingham, 70 centimeters wide, cost 2½d. per yard (comparison with Manchester).

* * * Italian gingham, 67½ centimeters wide, cost 2¾d. per yard (comparison with Manchester).

* * * Italian gingham, 61 centimeters wide, cost 1½d. per yard. This sample shows about the assortment for the two previous ones.

Wave-colored flannelets are in vogue at present. The national factories are not yet able to compete in them, but the German manufacturers do.

Of imported dyed goods I forward samples as follows, viz:

* * * Italian black goods, 130 centimeters wide, price 2\$200 per meter, at 8d. exchange.

* * * French black goods, 130 centimeters wide, price 2\$200 per meter, at 7d. exchange.

* * * Italian black goods, 76 centimeters wide, price 1\$100 per meter, at 8d. exchange.

* * * German black goods, 130 centimeters wide, price 2\$600 per meter, at 7d. exchange.

* * * German black goods, 125 centimeters wide, price 1\$650 per meter, at 7d. exchange.

* * * Italian cotton serge, 130 centimeters wide, price 2\$500 per meter, at 8d. exchange.

In blue drills, the American "S" mark holds its own (in virtue of the mark) against similar English goods. National goods also compete favorably. I forward a sample piece of the latter * * * about 27 inches wide, weighing 164 grams per meter. Present price, based on exchange, about 8d, 1\$100 per meter. Duty to import would be 328 reis per meter. The excellence of the dye is to be noted.

(b) *Stockings and socks*.—The lighter makes come from Germany, while heavier goods are largely of national manufacture.

(c) *Thread for sewing* comes almost entirely from England. A small national factory was working up to a few days back, and as its sales were daily increasing it is supposed it may resume working. This factory packs cases of 30 gross of spools, assorted, as follows: Nos. 16, 2 gross; 20, 2 gross; 24, 4 gross; 30, 4 gross; 36, 2 gross; 40, 8 gross; 50, 6 gross; 60, 2 gross, which sell at 15\$000 per gross (1\$000 per gross extra for Nos. 16 and 20 alone) against about 23\$000 for Clark's.

* * * * *

(e) *Hosiery and small wares*.—There is a large amount of undershirts, chiefly unbleached goods, made in the country. I forward samples, as follows: * * * An unbleached undershirt, price 11\$000 per dozen. * * * An unbleached undershirt, price 16\$000 per dozen.

A factory which made coarse bleached goods was closed not long since, and for the present these are being imported from England. Woven drawers are of little use in this climate.

Cotton blankets, except special fancy ones, have been put out of the market by the native woolen (or mixed) goods, experience having shown the latter to be the most useful.

Cotton ropes for machinery are being adopted a good deal instead of leather, and come almost entirely from England.

Furniture, cabinet, and upholstery wares.—With a good supply of native hard wood of various kinds and a high protective duty, it is not surprising that most of the furniture used in the country is made locally. The only importations possible seem to be cheap chairs which come from the United States, and bentwood furniture from Austria.

GLASS.

(a) *Plate, rough or silvered*.—Supplies seem to come almost entirely from the Continent, although some business still exists with England. A business man of long experience in the country told me that some years ago, when the shop windows were still largely of common glass, foreseeing the change which must inevitably come about to the use of plate glass, he arranged an agency for large English makers with a first-class local house. The efforts of the latter, however, were unavailing against Belgian competition, and were not properly backed up by the manufacturers, who should have been prepared in the first instance to make prices in order to capture the trade, as the Americans so often do in similar cases.

(b) *Flint*.—British makers do not appear to have any share to speak of in this trade. National factories supply a large part of the demand for common qualities, and continental manufacturers supply practically all the rest.

(c) *Common bottles*.—These come from the Continent. The principal of the large factory here, which I visited, told me that he could not make them in the country to compete with the imported goods, but that bottles were made in São Paulo to sell at about 300 reis each (under 2½d.).

(d) *Of other sorts*.—Lamp ware is chiefly German and Belgian. Some lamps are so far of native production that the bodies, shades, and chimneys are made at the glass factory above referred to, the fittings only being imported.

HARDWARE AND CUTLERY.

Hollow ware.—In cast-iron ware there has not hitherto been any competition with the English article, the retinned of which is mostly sold for upcountry and the enameled for town use. Recently, however, some cast-iron hollow ware has been sold in the market which is said to be a German imitation. There is some doubt as to whether it really is German make, but in view of the statement it seemed to be worth while to obtain and forward samples, which I have done; these are as follows: (1) A retinned kettle, (2) a retinned saucepan, (3) an enameled kettle, (4) an enameled saucepan.

The retinned has been selling at about 1\$750 per kilo, and the enameled at about 2\$650 per kilo, at which prices they are said to yield a profit to the importer, whereas for English (Clark's) 1\$900 and 2\$800, respectively, are required merely to cover cost. Ordinary cast-iron cooking pots, which are only imported from England, meet some competition from a national make, but owing to the indifferent quality of the latter the competition is not very serious.

In wrought-iron ware, retinned, the French make appears to hold its own for kitchen utensils, and the mark is so well known that cheaper English goods, I am told, have not been able to compete. Large retinned basins, however, come from England. Enameled ware is mostly German.

Locks.—Door locks, which are made by the country folk in Portugal in their houses during the winter months, have a large sale. It was contemplated at one time to make these locks in a large ironworks here, and special machinery was imported for the purpose. It has, however, never been started, the opinion of the present management being against the prospect of successful competition. I forward samples of these Portuguese locks as follows, viz:

* * * a 5-inch Oporto lock, "Venancio 1A"—assortment, 5, 5½, and 6 inch—sold here at 1\$250 each.

* * * a 6-inch Oporto lock, "Venancio 1A"—assortment as above—sold here at 1\$100 each.

Padlocks of English make are said to have the largest sale, but cheaper German makes are also freely sold. I inclose a sample of one of the latter, * * * all in one size, various patterns, on cards, sold here at 3\$800 per dozen.

Iron hinges.—Large flat hinges for gates are English, but bright door hinges are chiefly of German and American make. I forward samples, as follows:

* * * an American hinge, of which the first cost of the 2½-inch size is 14 cents; of the 3-inch size, 21 cents, and of the 3½-inch size, 26

cents, all per dozen pairs; against 7½d., 11½d., and 16½d. per dozen pairs, the first cost of the 2½, 3, and 3½ inch sizes, respectively, in England.

* * * a German "American" iron hinge, which costs as follows, placed in port of shipment:

	Marks.
2½-inch.....	per dozen.. 0. 72
2½-inch.....	do.... .83
3-inch.....	do.... .95
4-inch.....	do.... 1. 90

Cutlery.—The bulk of the table cutlery is reported to be English, as well as the bulk of the pocket cutlery, although of this latter there is a larger proportion (consisting chiefly of cheap German goods on cards) imported elsewhere than from the United Kingdom than of the former. Large German scissors are said to sell well. I forward a sample pair of these, * * * A. T. N. make, size 7-inch, packed in half dozens in paper packets, and sold here—assorted 7, 8, 9, and 10 sizes—at 32\$000 per dozen.

A large dealer and importer of small hardware remarked to me upon the trouble taken by German hardware travelers, of whom he saw many more than of English, and upon the "get up" of the Germans' sample cards, with the importers' names on them. He also spoke of the care bestowed on German packing of small orders, e. g., in assorting them so as to make the freight as cheap as possible, and also of their clear and full invoicing.

HATS OF ALL SORTS.

Wool and felt hats are extensively made in the country; common soft wool hats are, in fact, almost entirely so, and I understand that probably 80 to 90 per cent of the soft hair-felt hats are also made here; but of the hard hats (a comparatively small trade) the great majority, perhaps 80 per cent, are imported from England.

A manufacturer here, whose works I visited, told me that travelers came regularly from two continental houses who sold nothing else but hat furnishings (sheepskin linings, linings for crowns, silk bindings, etc.), besides travelers from continental houses selling other goods apart from hat furnishings, but that he never saw an English traveler with the latter, although he has done some business with England. He remarked that there were great difficulties in doing business with English houses; firstly, he said, there was the difficulty of money, weights, and measures, all different from the decimal and metric system that people here are accustomed to; secondly, there was a want of clear explanatory details in invoices; thirdly, a failure to attend to tariff requirements, such as giving net weights of different articles separately, giving weights with cardboard included as well as net when required, and giving gross weights of the separate cases, in kilos; and fourthly, there was the inferiority of the packing cases used. German and French cases always arrived in good condition, whereas English cases came badly broken.

Straw hats for sale in the towns are generally of light French or German makes, which are found the most suitable. There is a national factory for making these hats from imported straw which came to grief, after, it is said, having sold steadily at too low prices; but it is possible this factory may be resuscitated.

Rough straw hats made in the country of native straw and grass have a very large sale for workmen. A serviceable hat of this kind sometimes costs as little as 300 reis.

IMPLEMENTS AND TOOLS OF INDUSTRY.

Spades and shovels come largely from the United States, and axes almost entirely so, but English hoes still hold their own.

Wheelbarrows are also imported from the United States, and compete with barrows made locally upon the American model.

Carpenters' tools are largely imported from Germany. I forward samples as follows:—

* * * a German brace, sold here at 5\$000.

* * * a box with the 24 bits to correspond, sold here at 5\$000.

United States makes of these are also imported.

* * * a German screwdriver, sold here at 4\$000 per dozen, for assorted sizes, 3, 4, 5, and 6 inches.

* * * a German handsaw, 16 inches, packed six together in paper, which costs per dozen, free in port of shipment, as follows:

	Marks.		Marks.
14-inch.....	7.80	26-inch.....	14.30
16-inch.....	8.50	28-inch.....	16.25
18-inch.....	9.20	30-inch.....	17.50
20-inch.....	11.40	36-inch.....	23.40
22-inch.....	11.70	38-inch.....	26.00
24-inch.....	13.00		

Hand pumps are imported from America and Germany, besides England. The German appear to take especially well for lightness and cheapness; a "Wing" clock or "Farrington" from Frankfort costs there as follows: No. 0, $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch piping, 9.20 marks; No. 1, $\frac{3}{4}$ -inch piping, 10.40 marks; No. 2, 1-inch piping, 12.20 marks; to which prices about 8 per cent may be added to cover packing and freight to Antwerp.

Under this division (*Implements, etc.*), I forward a sample * * * of an American wire and lead fastener for sealing closed railway wagons, which is used to some extent in this country, and costs about 18s. per thousand.

Brushes and brooms come from the Continent. They used to be made locally to some extent, but, notwithstanding the high protective duty, the factory making them has recently given up the business.

LEATHER.

(a) *Unwrought*.—National tanneries supply the trade almost entirely in sole leather, a very little only being imported from France, and even enameled cowhide for top-boots is now made in the country. I forward a small cutting of this * * * to show what is meant. The skin averages about 4 kilos in weight and costs about 40\$000, duty to import being 6\$000 per kilo. All the finer kinds of leather, however, are imported, chiefly, I understand, from France; but horse leather, which is largely used, comes from Germany, often ready cut in welts.

(b) *Wrought—boots and shoes*.—National factories, of which there are several equipped with modern machinery, are believed to do the largest share of this trade. Imported goods are mostly English. The national factories, I understand, can make a fair boot to sell at 20\$000, whilst a 12s. boot in England costs about 28\$000 to sell.

(d) *Saddlery and harness*.—The import of saddles is practically nil; the better class are made from imported, and the lower from native tanned hog skins. A cheap saddle can be bought for 40\$000, a fair one for 100\$000.

Bridles, etc., are made in the country to a far larger extent than they are imported, but those of local manufacture are of poorer quality; the imports are chiefly from England.

LINEN AND JUTE YARN.

(a) *Linen yarn* was formerly imported for a small weaving mill, but this did not prove a success and the importation has ceased.

(b) *Jute yarn* is largely imported for the making of hessians for coffee bags (see *ante*, under head of "Bags"). Italian competition is felt at times when the Italian mills are overstocked, but the great bulk of the imports are British.

MACHINERY.

(a) *Steam engines*.—The majority of stationary engines seem to be of British make, but the reverse is the case with regard to locomotives. The usual reason alleged for the latter being chiefly American is, that the Americans make the most suitable engines for poorly ballasted and new lines, and I have been told in proof thereof that some of the smaller lines which formerly used British locomotives have taken to Baldwin's. I am not satisfied that the reason alleged is the correct one, nor that it is a fact. Not being an expert, I can not say authoritatively, but what I saw and learned in the Argentine seemed to show that United States makers are not alone successful in building locomotives for new countries; and, curiously enough, some very fine American locomotives—not Baldwin's—which were imported here a few years ago, proved too heavy and rigid for the road. It seems to me that one great reason of the success of the Baldwin Company in capturing the trade is their admirable local organization. They have good, influential agents and also several engineers of the company always on the spot where they are needed to attend to complaints, remedy defects, and watch for new requirements. Their locomotives are light and cheap to make. They have a big going business in the country, so that they can afford to incur expenses in protecting and extending their trade, as well as to sell on very long credit, and yet accept what seem to be moderate prices.

(b) *Of other sorts*.—Probably the machinery of largest sale in this part of Brazil is that which has to do with the cleaning and preparing of coffee. This is very largely made in the country. * * *

For general agricultural machinery there is not much demand, coffee being practically the one crop of the country, but there are evidences already alluded to of a change having begun in this respect. Light American plows with wooden handles and reversible shares (for hilly country), costing from 45\$000 to 70\$000 each, are the favorites, but a few large and much more expensive iron plows, German and French, are also sold.

* * * * *

Cotton mill furnishings are somewhat of a specialty, and come mostly from England. A large importer of these complained to me of the frequent bad interior packing; *e. g.*, drop pins came packed in cardboard boxes of three gross each, and the boxes, being too weak for this purpose, often arrived broken. Similarly, belt buckles were packed in paper packages of a quarter of a gross each, and out of a consignment of 200 packages recently received only one dozen arrived fit to put on the shelves; they should be in small cardboard boxes.

In *electric machinery* the American make has by far the largest sale. It is worth noting in this connection that there is an American electrical expert here, with electrical experts under him, who is well backed by a big American company. He has a shop in the leading street of Rio to show his wares, and is, I am assured, the only man in the place

who is prepared to estimate at once for an electrical installation anywhere in the country; others have to write to principals. It is not surprising that, quite apart from considerations of suitability and cheapness of machinery, he does the most business.

Manure.—The use of fertilizers is not much understood, but with the development of general agriculture they are expected to be more wanted. Some prepared guano is imported from Germany, I understand. A special store is requisite for this business.

METALS.

1. IRON—(a) *Old, for remanufacture*, is usually an article of export. Of late years it has been sought to keep it in the country by imposing an export duty of 20 reis per kilo upon it, but there appears to be some question about this tax, and it is said that it is not being enforced.

(b) *Pig and puddled* are imported principally from England. There is a considerable amount of casting done in the country—only large pieces being imported—and the industry is protected by a duty of 200 reis per kilo on plain castings, 400 reis on painted or tinned, and 1\$000 per kilo on gilt or silvered, against 10 reis per kilo on pig iron. Puddled bars are imported to only a trifling extent comparatively, and are brought in chiefly to supplement the supplies of scrap available for the one national rolling mill.

(c) *Bar, angle, bolt, and rod (including soft steel).*—The demand for these is principally confined to the smaller sizes, and the national rolling mill, already referred to, supplies part of this demand (say up to 3 inches by $\frac{1}{2}$ inch, or 2 inch for square, or 2 inch diameter for round), turning out 250 to 300 tons per month. The import, however, is much larger. Moreover, the duty (100 reis per kilo) is not such a protection to this industry as the duties on castings are to cast-iron work, and I gather that the returns from the rolling mill are not very satisfactory. Bars for up-country have to be bent into 5 or 6 feet lengths for packing on mules, and the bending is largely done here. The iron used is often Swedish, which, notwithstanding that its test is much higher than English or Belgian, is preferred in the interior, because, after it is worn out in its first use, it serves for making into knives, etc., locally. The competition of Belgian iron, of course, affects the sale of English, and is keenly felt, as is likewise the competition of iron from the United States.

(d) *Railroad, of all sorts.*—The agents for a large English maker told me they missed a large contract for the Government railway a couple of years ago because their principals insisted upon payment in Europe, whereas the terms of tender required payment here at the exchange of the day of delivery. After exchange of the day of delivery has been settled, it is well known that owing to official formalities which have to be gone through an interval of several weeks may elapse before collection, during which exchange may have altered again, hence the objection to payment here. The contract was, however, taken by a leading German maker, although his price was not so cheap. A heavy loss in exchange ensued, but with diplomatic (German) assistance the maker obtained compensation.

A contract for 3,000 tons of steel rails for a railway under English management recently went to the United States.

(e) *Wire for fencing*, both black and galvanized, appears to be mostly Belgian and German; but barbed wire, rolled on wooden bobbins of convenient size, comes from the United States.

(f) *Hoops, sheets, and boiler plates.*—Belgian competition tells here, too, and some importers who have held to the English makers as long as they possibly could, have been recently induced to order Belgian sheets, owing to the great difference of price in their favor—30s. and 40s. per ton. They say their buyers will have the cheap stuff, even for boilers.

Galvanized and corrugated sheets are still English.

(g) *Tinned plates* (from England) are imported for making coffee-sample tins, tins for Guava cheese and other sweetmeats, tobacco, etc., probably to the extent of at least 500 cases per month. The tin-making industry is mostly carried on in comparatively small establishments, and I have not seen any very high-class work. The plates are almost all coke; perhaps 5 per cent, I am informed, may be charcoal. The fruit canning industry does not seem to be large; pineapples were tried for export, but could not compete with Singapore apparently.

Terne plates are imported (also from England) for the national safety match factories, which all put up their matches in terne-plate cases containing 10 dozen packets of 10 boxes each. These plates are not used for roofing and not much now for guttering, for which purpose galvanized iron is preferred.

(h) *Cast or wrought and all other iron manufactures.*—Wrought-iron building girders have not hitherto been largely imported, but their use will doubtless increase, and Belgium is to the front with cheap prices.

Iron pipes, both black and galvanized, used all to come from England, but now the United States is a strong competitor; while in regard to cocks, joints, T's, etc., it is said to be only because people are accustomed to English shapes that so many still come from England. A large importer here told me that the United States makes were lighter (duty is by weight) and cheaper, and he looked forward to buying in the States later on.

Wire nails (Paris points) are made in the country from imported Belgian wire. I forward two pattern cards, numbered 717, with samples of the various sizes, and with price list of the leading factory attached. This factory recently increased its discount allowance from 30 per cent to 45 per cent owing to the competition of several much smaller concerns.

The old English horseshoe nail, which required finishing by the farrier before being used (and the form of which English makers would not change), was replaced a few years ago by the ready-finished German nail, which now holds the market. I forward two samples of this nail, together with an empty cardboard case, numbered 714, in which 1,000 nails come packed, 10 of these packages going in a wooden case. So completely did this ready-for-use nail take the taste of buyers that, although the superiority of the English nail was admitted, the latter became practically unsalable. One importer told me he was glad to get rid of his stock at one-fifth of the usual price, and another that he put his stock, barrels and all, into the wrought-iron furnace. These nails were sold some little time since at 1\$600 per mil., for equally assorted 7's and 8's. The latter number is the most used.

Engineers' bolts and nuts, from about 3 inches by $\frac{1}{2}$ inch, or 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ inches by $\frac{5}{8}$ inch upward, are made here, being protected by a duty of 600 reis per kilo; but coach and cabinetmakers' bolts and nuts are largely of continental manufacture. The price of the former, assorted sizes, that is, not all small sizes, 1\$200 per kilo. I forward a sample of the latter, a French coachmakers' bolt and nut * * * to show the kind used, but I have not been able to ascertain the price of this article, though this is charged per 100 bolts and not by weight.

Wood screws are now mostly German. I forward a sample packet, * * * containing an assortment $\frac{1}{2}$ to $1\frac{1}{2}$, of German wood screws, which come packed in cardboard in quantities of one gross. A recent sale of these was made thus:

Length, in quarters of an inch.	Thickness in lines.	Price per gross.
		<i>Reis.</i>
4	4	380
4	5	440
4	6	480
6	4	480
6	6	640
6	9	820
7	7	750
7	9	880
7	10	940
8	6	720
8	7	760
8	9	13000
8	10	13100
9	10	13250
12	12	13700

One large commission agent told me that up to two or three years ago his orders went to England, but when English makers would not raise their discount allowances he had to send them to the Continent. After a time the English makers, finding they were not receiving his orders, sent out to inquire the reason, and offered to make needful concessions; but, as he says, it is much easier to refuse business than, having once done so, to recover it from buyers who have been made to change and have become accustomed to the change.

Railway spikes are made locally. I forward a sample * * * being a $4\frac{1}{2}$ -inch spike, suitable for a 60-pound rail and hardwood sleepers. Price, 13000 per kilo.

II. *Copper* of all kinds comes from England. Copper disks are imported for making cooking vessels, and these are beaten out by hand, not stamped by machinery.

III. *Brass of all sorts*.—Brass hinges appear to be principally German. I forward a sample * * * of a German brass hinge (2 inches), costing as follows:

	Marks.
1 $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch per dozen...	0.60
1 $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch do.....	.70
2-inch do.....	.85
2 $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch do.....	1.25
2 $\frac{1}{2}$ -inch do.....	1.45
3-inch do.....	1.75
3 $\frac{1}{4}$ -inch do.....	2.50

Brass stirrup shoes are used to a considerable extent in the country. I forward a sample pair of the plainest kind * * * "M. B.," 11 inches. Belgian assorted, 11, 11 $\frac{1}{2}$, and 12 inches, are sold here at 153500 per pair. I also send a sample * *. * of a pair of the clips used to fasten the shoes to the leathers, "P. I." Belgian. The cost, laid down here, is 313400 per dozen.

A certain amount of brass smelting is done in the country, black-lead crucibles being used for the purpose. One importer of these, who used to get the Battersea make, told me that he read in the Philadelphia Manufacturer of an American black-lead crucible. He sent for a catalogue * * * and found that the prices compare as follows:

American: 3 $\frac{1}{2}$ cents per number (number equals about 3 pounds of metal capacity), less 35 per cent.

English: 3d. per number (number equals about 1 kilogram of metal capacity), less 20 per cent. He has since imported the American article, finding it quite satisfactory.

IV. *Lead, pig, sheet, and pipe*.—Pig lead (60 kilo ingots) is all imported from France (Marseilles). The quality is stated to be better and more pliable, and the price cheaper than English pig. Sheet lead for cisterns, etc., comes mostly from England. Lead pipes are made in the country, being protected by an import duty of 200 reis per kilo, against an import duty of 30 reis per kilo on pig. Current sizes are sold at about 800 reis per kilo, small sizes at about 850 reis. Composition lead pipes come from England.

V. *Tin, unwrought*, is British, and

VI. *Zinc* is Belgian.

OIL AND FLOOR CLOTH.

Oilcloth for tables is coming more and more from Germany, on account, it is alleged, of cheaper prices, and of more showy and varied patterns, together with greater facility in obtaining sizes to order.

Floor cloth.—A large English importer of this told me he had had to send to Germany for floor cloth, as English makers would not make the widths or cut the lengths he required.

Oil, seed, appears to be all imported from England.

PAINTERS' COLORS AND MATERIALS.

Zinc, white (in barrels), is imported to a considerable extent, much more so than white lead. The English make is said to be too dear, and the best mark which comes is French ("Vielle Montagne"), poorer qualities being German. It is variously reduced according to price, from 30 to 40 per cent commonly.

Red lead comes from England and the Continent, also reduced variously according to price.

A certain amount of paint is mixed and put up in drums in the country, sulphate of barytes forming the base, but the majority of buyers mix their own and use zinc white as the base.

Varnish comes from England, but some very poor stuff is reported to be made in the country.

Paper (other than hangings).—Paper for newspapers comes from France; also from Norway. United States paper has been tried, but, like English, found too expensive.

Other printing paper is largely German. I forward two samples, viz:

* * * of paper costing 37½ marks per 100 kilos placed in Hamburg.

* * * of paper costing 42 marks per 100 kilos placed in Hamburg.

Also a sample of American printing paper which now competes, viz:

* * * costing 6s. 5d. per ream of 40 pounds (500 sheets) f. o. b. (sometimes sold at 44 francs per 100 kilos f. o. b.).

The writing paper and envelopes most used are German, only special qualities coming from England. I forward a sample * * * of a German envelope, packed in bundles of 50, and 10 bundles in a paper box (i. e., 500 envelopes), which cost 1½ marks per 1,000 envelopes, packed f. o. b. Hamburg, less 2 per cent.

English qualities meet some competition from the United States. I forward a few samples, viz, two sheets of note paper and two envelopes, * * * but have not been able to ascertain prices.

Wrapping paper comes from the Continent, excepting some special

quality from the United States, and some low quality made in the country. I forward samples as follow, viz:

* * * German paper, costing $21\frac{1}{2}$ marks per 100 kilos placed in Hamburg, no discount.

* * * German paper, costing 31 marks per 100 kilos placed in Hamburg, less 2 per cent.

* * * Native-made paper, price 20\$000 per ream of 28 kilos (containing 480 sheets), less 6 per cent.

I also forward some samples of American blotting paper, * * * price 7 cents per pound, less discount.

A leading German importer told me he found great difficulty in getting anything from England; that when English travelers called upon him, they were not able to state prices in marks or francs quickly, but had to stop to calculate the equivalents of their English prices from tables; that their invoices were not only all in English, and with English weights and money, all most difficult for his Brazilian clerks, instead of in kilos and francs or marks, which everyone understands, but they even contained incomprehensible contractions, and moreover displayed want of attention to custom-house requirements.

Provisions.—England does comparatively little in these, which, excluding dried meat from the River Plate, appear to come mostly from the United States and Southern Europe. A large grocer told me he had never seen an English traveler for provisions.

Spirits.—English gin ("Old Tom") has some sale, but not nearly so great as that of "Hollands." The figures (in number of cases) are as follows:

Country.	1895.	1896.	1897.
England	3, 072	1, 115	1, 508
Belgium (shipped from Antwerp)	24, 307	7, 230	6, 747
Various	995	1, 200	5, 680
Total	28, 374	9, 545	14, 135

Whisky is used very much less, and only comes from England. Very fair "Cognac" is reported made in the country out of sugar!

Stationery other than paper.—Ink, both printing and writing, is made at a national factory, but the amount produced must only be a small proportion of the total consumption. As regards the printer's ink, I have heard that the improved exchange has already induced one large user of the local make to import, and that he is getting his ink from the United States at 8 cents per pound, in 100-pound barrels. As I close this letter, I hear the local factory has just been put into liquidation.

Sugar, refined.—The consumption is entirely of a soft, white dust sugar. There is no large refinery; but a number of small establishments, often worked by confectioners or grocers for themselves, "refine" the raw sugar in a somewhat primitive manner. Even fine crystals from the north would have to be subjected to the process before being available for consumption here.

Wool is imported from England and France for the hat factories. It has been coming to a great extent carded, but, owing to increased duty on carded wool, the carding will probably be done here in the future altogether.

Woolen and worsted yarn.—A little worsted yarn is imported for a small national woolen mill here—I believe from Verviers.

WOOLEN AND WORSTED MANUFACTURES.

(a and b) *Woolen and worsted and mixed tissues* do not appear to be of common use here in Rio except among the well-to-do classes, and 11 to 12 ounce goods are about the heaviest. I will refer to these again from São Paulo.

(c) *Flannels*.—Baizes are made a little in the south, but are mostly imported from England. There is much less use for them than of old, owing to the development of railways, one of their chief uses being for packing loads of goods on mule back.

(d) *Blankets*.—These are chiefly made at Rio Grande do Sul. I forward samples as follow, viz:

* * * A native-made blanket, 200 by 140 centimeters, price 7\$000 each; 160 by 220 centimeters, 9\$000; 180 by 220 centimeters, 11\$000.

* * * A native-made striped blanket, 194 by 112 centimeters (also in blue), one size, price 3\$700 each.

The above prices are probably based on exchange at 7½d. to 7¾d.

(g) *Of all other sorts*.—I forward a sample * * * of German printed felt saddle cloth for women, sold at 9\$500 each (based probably on exchange not higher than 7¾d.), which is an article of large use in the interior. Men sometimes use a similar saddle cloth, of smaller size, but as a rule prefer the English thick wool cloth, which, though somewhat dearer, lasts much longer.

The instances given and complaints referred to in the preceding portion of this letter indicate pretty clearly some of the reasons why we have lost ground in particular trades. To state these reasons in general terms (to which there may have existed, and doubtless now do exist, exceptions), one might say, I think, that we have not been so ready as our competitors to adopt indications of changes required in this market, nor so careful in attending to details in the manner of finishing, packing, and invoicing.

Exchange.—It is perhaps worth noting that since exchange was last at par (27d. per milreis), viz, in 1889 (i. e., less than ten years ago) average rates have been as follows:

	Pence.
1890	22½
1891	16½
1892	11½
1893	11½
1894	10½
1895	9½
1896	9
1897	7½

showing that in the period indicated the purchasing power of the milreis declined to nearly one-third of what it was, while the native, although on the same sterling basis for his produce he might be better off, still wants the same thing, or something as like it as possible, for a milreis as formerly, and this in many cases we have not been so quick to give him as others have.

Freights.—I have carefully looked into the matter of freights with a view to ascertain what advantage, if any, continental shippers have over British. Agents of steamers are not kept posted as to outward freights from Europe, doubtless owing to the fact that these are all payable at the port of shipment, and differences of opinion as to advantage or otherwise in rates from the Continent compared with those from England seem to exist among merchants. I collected a number of data and was endeavoring to form conclusions upon the same when I succeeded in obtaining a copy of the Conference Minimum Tariff Rates

from United Kingdom ports and continental ports between Antwerp and Hamburg, of January, 1898, marked "D," together with a subsequent memorandum, undated, of four pages, regarding "through rates" and "open rates." A perusal of the list of articles in this tariff upon which the rates are "open"—namely, barges, hoops and shooks, coal, coke, explosives, government cargo, railway material and general stores not portable, railway carriages and wagons, sleepers, tram cars, wheels and axles and wagons—and of the list of twenty seven articles in the memorandum upon which rates are "open" for not less than 50 freight tons, as well as of the list of other articles for which they are "open" for not less than 100 and 200 freight tons, respectively, is, I think, quite sufficient, given the facility which exists for obtaining cheaper freights from the Continent than from England in other directions, to prove that it is not necessary to take outside steamers into account to be able to say that in a large number of cases there is a very distinct advantage in freights to continental shippers, and this, too, without investigating the matter of rebates to shippers, which can only be done in Europe. I noticed 30 marks per 1,000 kilos, plus $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, by the German South American Line on iron wire against 35 marks by the tariff, 19 marks per cubic meter by North German Lloyd on empty match boxes, etc., against 25 marks by the tariff, 30 marks per cubic meter by the German South American on toys against 45 marks by the tariff (and these last were not on the "open" list). Sailer freights are said to be easier to arrange from the Continent than from England, and rates on weight are so much cheaper that pig iron has sometimes gone by steamer from the east coast of England to Hamburg for shipment thence by sail. I note the following comparison as to number of sailing vessels arriving from London, Liverpool, and Glasgow with those from Antwerp and Hamburg, viz:

	1895.	1896.	1897.
Number of sailing vessels arriving from—			
London, Liverpool, and Glasgow.....	19	14	13
Antwerp and Hamburg	38	25	24

Trade-marks.—False marking of foreign (in the sense of other than English) made goods seems to be most heard of in connection with the piracy of trade-marks by national manufacturers. The law on this subject appears in itself good: Trade-marks (not names) may be registered. The application for registration must be accompanied by a certificate either to the effect that the mark has not been registered elsewhere or giving the particulars of any such registration. Any false indication or anything by which a buyer is deceived, such as a good but not necessarily exact imitation of a mark, is forbidden; and, further, by the latest national factory marks law national goods are not allowed to bear indications of contents, origin, etc., in any other language than Portuguese. But although the law may be good and the tribunals fair, the process of enforcing it is intricate and expensive, owing, I gather, to the number of people who have to be feed in order to prevent vexatious delays. In the case of false indications of origin merely it is obviously not worth any person's while to prosecute, and the State takes no initiative in the matter. It is a moot point whether articles whose names are in a foreign (i. e., other than Portuguese) language, and whose names are such that they would, if translated, either lose their meaning or be ridiculous, can not be made in the country under

their own foreign name; but, putting this aside, I have seen perfumery articles of national manufacture bearing labels which certainly appeared illegal, the seller nevertheless being quite unconcerned, and only remarking that the law was a bad one for national industries. Makers of "Huntly & Palme's" biscuits have recently had to compromise a suit brought against them; and I am told two different imitators of "Apollinaris" water have paid fines, but go on again cheerfully with their fraud, while old Apollinaris-water bottles are in strong demand!

Commercial travelers.—The idea that English shipping houses or manufacturers do not employ competent travelers with a knowledge of the language is, I believe, incorrect, as a rule, and very far from the truth in the dry goods trade. In some of the smaller trades, however, there would seem to be no English travelers, or, at all events, not specialists.

Money, weights, and measures.—Where undoubtedly we are handicapped in our relations with buyers is in the use of English money, weights, and measures. True, there may be a few articles where we have impressed our own system into a custom, but in the vast majority of instances the adoption of the metric system of weights and measures and the twentieth part of a sovereign as a unit (with cents thereof) for money reckoning would be of the very greatest advantage.

Credit.—In granting credit our continental competitors selling on the spot are said to be easier than British merchants, managers of continental houses having more discretion in the matter probably; but in direct credit from Europe, as already indicated, English credit will, I believe, frequently be found the cheapest. German shippers are, however, said to be very easy with good buyers.

There are undoubtedly fewer English importing houses here than there were, and more continental ones. There are, I think, several reasons for this. In the first place, our competitors, speaking generally, work more cheaply and are content with less profits; secondly, they appear to be less scrupulous as a class, which tells in dealing with the custom-house; and, thirdly, the absence of an English law for commandite partnerships renders it more difficult for young firms to start. Continental firms do plenty of business in British goods, but British firms comparatively little apparently in continental goods. In a large and highly developed trade like the British dry goods trade probably this condition of affairs is comparatively of little consequence to the manufacturers; but the tendency for a German or French merchant, for example, to import a German or French article rather than a British one must, for obvious reasons, exist and make itself strongly felt in trades where our position is weaker.

Hoping to write further from São Paulo,

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

THOS. WORTHINGTON,
Commissioner.

MEMORANDUM RESPECTING THE NATIONAL INDUSTRIES IN THE RIO DE JANEIRO AND SÃO PAULO DISTRICTS OF BRAZIL.

Cotton manufactures.—As already mentioned in my letter of the 4th instant, the largest and most developed of the national industries in the above-named districts is the manufacturing of the raw cotton of the country. Most of this cotton seems to come from Pernambuco. The majority of the mills buy in the market of Rio de Janeiro, but one of

them, at least, imports from Pernambuco. From the figures I have been able to obtain I make out that the cost of moving the cotton from the field to the mill (in Rio itself), including the export duty (payable alike on cotton shipped to another State of Brazil as on that shipped abroad), is about 1d. per pound, or 0.70d. exclusive of the export duty. The high freight coastwise, resulting from the law limiting cargo to the national flag, tends to make this cost higher than it otherwise would be.

Wages at one of the largest and best-managed mills are estimated to work out at 1 milreis per kilogram all round, or, roughly speaking, about 500 reis per kilogram on coarse cloth and 1\$500 on fine.

The report of the British consul for 1894 gives a list of cotton mills in the Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo districts. Some of these have gone into liquidation, while others have increased their looms since that report was written.

The machinery employed is almost all English. As stated in my letter above referred to, the spinning is all ring spinning, and the highest counts of yarn spun are 50's to 60's. The hands are now almost all Brazilians or non-English immigrants.

I visited several mills, and some reference to these may serve to indicate the importance of the industry. The "A" mill, near Rio de Janeiro, is one of the largest. It employs about 1,500 hands, has 355 carding machines, about 50,000 spindles, 1,250 looms (the majority being 36, 38, and 40 inches, with a few smaller sizes down to 30 inches, and some 48 inches), steam engines of a combined power amounting to nearly 2,000 horsepower, and an electric motor (United States) of 125 horsepower. Its chief product is bleached goods, but it also dyes, and weaves trouserings, Oxfords, etc., the total outturn being about 1,000,000 meters per month. The numbers of yarn used are 4, 6, 12, and 16 in the coarse-goods department and 30 and 40 in the fine-goods department. The wages, mostly based on work done, are paid by the month, but not until the second Saturday of the following month. Advances are, however, given without interest, and the truck system is not adopted.

The "F" mill, also near Rio de Janeiro, has 12,000 spindles (all 38 inches), 318 looms, and a steam engine of 500 horsepower. It employs about 370 hands. Its chief product so far has been in bleached goods, but one-color Oxfords were just being started when I visited it. Its total outturn is about 350,000 meters per month. I saw at this mill white shirtings of 80, 100, and 120 grams per meter, some with filling and some without, the latter only being made to order; also lawn ("Cambray") of 80 grams, unfilled, which was said to give very good profit. Wages, except those of weavers, were based on work done, but the management had just ordered out indicators, so as to put the weavers also on piecework.

The supply of cotton being limited to the produce of the country, owing to the effect of the duties on imports, and the Brazilian cotton being all long-stapled, both the above mills buy the poorest qualities for making low-grade goods.

The "I" mill, in São Paulo, has about 170 looms, two engines of 240 horsepower combined, and a German motor for the electric light. It is said to employ about 400 hands. Its chief product appeared, from what I saw there, to be colored goods, viz, trouserings, Oxfords, etc., but there were three or four wide looms making gray goods of about 130 centimeters in width.

The "A" mill, in São Paulo, which I also visited, is situated on the railway. It has about 22 carding machines, 4,500 spindles, 198 looms, and a 200-horsepower engine, all English, and German electric-light installation. About 350 hands are employed, and all are paid by piece-work. The looms are 32 inches and 40 inches, and the product is almost entirely in checks and trouserings made from 8's and 10's yarn. The yarn is dyed on the premises, and aniline dyes are principally used. I was told that these dyes are shortly to be used entirely.

These São Paulo mills use some cotton grown in the State.

The "S. R." mill, near São Paulo, belongs to an Italian company, who have weaving mills in no less than five ports (including Buenos Ayres, where I visited their mill), and bring all their yarn, grandrilled or doubled, from their own spinning mills in Piedmont. They have nearly 400 looms, and make, among other things, a good deal of high-class trouserings and suitings in imitation of worsted goods.

I estimate that there are at least 11,000 looms, more or less, in the Rio and São Paulo districts, besides hosiery and undershirt machinery. A good deal of dyeing is done, but only one mill does printing.

There are, however, print works at a place in the São Paulo district, and I saw the manager of these in São Paulo. They have over 800 rollers at these works, and water power to an amount (some 1,500 to 2,000 horsepower) far beyond their requirements. From 130 to 150 hands are employed, and these are chiefly immigrants expert at the work, which is of a kind that the natives can not yet be trusted to do. They have machinery for printing in as many as eight colors, and their machines are all English. Their dyes (aniline) come from Germany and their alkalies from England. They print for others and also buy cloth and print for stock. Their charge for printing, including preparation of the cloth, which is delivered to them in the gray, is from 200 to 220 reis per meter for simple white grounds to 280 to 300 reis for a number of colors.

Jute weaving.—There are four jute-weaving factories, having about 1,100 looms between them. I refer to what I have written in my letter of the 4th instant, under the heading of bags, regarding this industry.¹ Three of the four factories are in the Rio de Janeiro district, and one of the three makes a seamless bag under an American patent; but by far the most important of the four is the large factory here in São Paulo. This factory, which I have visited, contains 599 looms, which represent an annual capacity of 14,000,000 meters, and the looms are being added to in order to bring up the capacity to 18,000,000 meters. The staple product is the 37-inch hessian for the ordinary coffee bag, made in several different qualities, but the chief sale is of a quality weighing 290 grams per meter. Rather less than 1½ meters go to a bag. The factory will sell either bags or hessians. Thirty-inch hessians, 400 grams per meter, are also woven for the heavy bags for upcountry use, as well as covers (varnished) for protecting coffee from rain showers in the process of drying, and jute cloth for common scissor beds.

The factory has two English steam engines of 300 and 100 horsepower, respectively; its own water supply, brought from a stream 4 miles distant; a large condensing tank and a railway siding, and it employs about 900 operatives. From December to May there is but little sale for the hessians, so they have largely to go into stock during that period, and new depositories are being built to facilitate this.

¹ See p. 96.

Cordage and twine manufacture.—The making of common cordage and twine, largely from “sunn” hemp, is an industry which is carried on in a number of small rope works; but seaming twine, for the coffee bags, made of Italian tow (“*Estopa Pitinata*”) or hemp, is made in at least two well-appointed factories, one in Rio and one in São Paulo, both of which I have visited.

The former was only reopened this year, after having been closed for a number of years, and it appears to be under capable and active management. The machinery used is mostly English, the engine being of 80-horsepower, and there are about 1,500 spindles. About 140 operatives are employed at present. The outturn amounts to 1,500 kilos daily. More than half of this is seaming twine, and some 250 kilos is good quality parcel string, making a total of over 1,000 kilos daily from yarn spun in the factory; the balance of the 1,500 kilos is made from finer yarn imported from Italy, the factory not having the necessary machinery for spinning this finer yarn. Cordage and rope, from Italian hemp, are also made here, but the machinery was being reset when I visited the place. There is a dyehouse attached for dyeing string, and also a storehouse. The manager told me that he regularly received the German trade journal, *O Tráfico d'Exportação*, printed in Portuguese. I forward the copy which he gave me, and call attention to the remarks on the front page.¹

The factory at São Paulo is situated close to the railway, and is quite new. Its machinery, including a 100-horsepower engine and a small engine for use in case of need, is all British. At present there are only 200 twisting and 200 spinning looms. The outturn is about 500 kilos daily, all being twine made from Italian hemp costing about 45 to 50 lire per 100 kilos. Nearly all this twine is 2-ply, although a little 3-ply is also made; the price, indifferently, is 2\$800 per kilo. About 40 hands are employed.

Woolen manufactures.—A list of woolen mills was given in the report of the British consul at Rio for 1896. * * * Since that list was made out, the mill first named in it has been put into liquidation, and is said to be likely to become the property of the one last named. A new mill has, however, come into existence through the enterprise of the wealthy owner of the large hessian factory in São Paulo, alongside of which factory it is being constructed, and whose water supply it uses.

I visited this mill. The machinery, including the engine of 300-horsepower, is all English, and English electric-light plant is being procured. So far there are only 80 looms, and only a portion of these are working, but more are en route. Worsteds yarns, as well as some woolen yarns, are imported, also a little mixed wool and cotton, all from England. The chief product is high-quality stuff for both men and women's wear, some dyed in the piece at the mill and some made from the yarn imported dyed. A little flannel is also made. Common blankets with cotton one way were tried, but did not prove a success.

Hat making.—I visited one of the leading felt-hat factories in the neighborhood of Rio de Janeiro. This factory is quite new, having been built to replace one which was burned down. It seemed very well managed and has room for expansion. The machinery, including a 50 horsepower engine and boiler and British electric-light installation, is largely British, but there are also some American and other machines. The hair-felt making machines work open, i. e., without a glass cover. At present about 100 operatives are employed, and the outturn amounts

¹ See Appendix III, p. 122.

to about 400 hats per day, about half being made of hair and half of wool, perhaps 10 per cent of the total being hard hats. Except a little native "castor," the hair is mostly imported fur, while the wool is nearly, if not all, imported from or through England, the native wool from the south not being considered good enough for the work of this factory. The lowest quality hats (wool) produced sell at about 1\$200 each (wholesale); while average good quality woollen hats, the article the factory sells more than any other, are sold at 4\$500 each and average good soft felt hats at 9\$000 each.

Iron working, machinery making, etc.—The most important of these establishments in the neighborhood of Rio, is probably the national rolling mill referred to in my report. The works, which I visited, have a harbor front and a railway siding. I noticed four or five old iron hulks being broken up, and the manager said he had not had recourse to puddled bars (on which the duty is 10 reis per kilo) for six months. The output of bars amounts to about 250 tons per month. These works have a combined power of 250-horsepower, supplied entirely by English steam engines. The electric installation is American. A large foundry is attached where a variety of work is done, such as the making of hand pumps (American pattern), trolley wheels, tram-car wheel boxes, etc. This foundry, however, is about to be moved a few hundred yards to another large building belonging to the same owners, where smaller work, such as making engineers' bolts and nuts and paint mixing, is carried on. In this latter building I was shown machinery for making wood screws, hinges, locks, and wrought-iron enameled hollow ware, none of which, however, it had been considered worth while setting up. These works combined employ about 400 operatives.

Another foundry which I visited makes chiefly box smoothing irons for use with charcoal, turning out about 500 finished per day. These smoothing irons are cast four at a time by a patent only used in Brazil; they weigh about 2½ kilos each, are packed one dozen in a box for shipment, and sell at 36\$000 per dozen. Duty to import would be 400 reis per kilo, against 10 reis on pig iron. The handles are made of native wood, turned on the premises. This foundry also makes cast-iron pots, cast-iron fire holders for cooking, cast-iron spirit burners (also for cooking), cast-iron tops for brick cooking ranges, and tailors' smoothing irons weighing four or five kilos each. The spirit burners, which are much less used than the old-fashioned fire holders, are sold at only 10\$000 per dozen in large quantities. There is a carpenters' shop attached to this foundry where wheelbarrows on the American pattern are made from native wood (steamed and bent on the premises), also collapsible stools of deal laths to sell at 30\$000 per dozen, etc. The machinery in this factory is all English, including one cupola and two small steam engines. There are 86 operatives, all of whom are on piece work. Glue for the carpentering department comes from Bahia. The smelters' clay, as in all these foundries, either comes from Lisbon, or is composed in the main of Lisbon clay.

I also visited the Rio Wire Nail Factory. This factory has 40 machines (German), a French engine of 100 horsepower, and Babcock & Wilcox boilers (2). It was employing about 60 operatives when I visited it, and its product was about 5,000 to 6,000 kilos daily. The capacity of the factory is stated at 10,000 kilos daily. The wire is all imported from Germany, and as the duty is the same on all sizes, no redrawing is done, the nails being made direct from the wire as imported (say from about No. 3 to No. 31), and finished in revolving drums with sawdust and grease, as usual.

The nails are put up in paper packets (paper from a local factory) of two kilos each, and when packed for shipment by the coast or up country 50 (or sometimes 25) of these packets go in a wooden case made on the premises from imported deal. The import duty on wire nails is 400 reis per kilo.

Another local industry is the making of horseshoes. The principal factory, which I visited, employs 36 hands and turns out 500 to 600 dozen shoes per day. The only machinery in use was a little English engine, a machine for stamping and bending, another for cutting, and another for punching. This industry is protected by the import duty on plain articles, not otherwise specified, made from wrought iron, which is 200 reis per kilo.

Perhaps the most important industry under this heading is the making of machinery, especially coffee machinery, in the São Paulo district. There are at least four factories engaged in this business, three of which also import machinery. One of the principal of these factories, which I visited, is divided into two divisions, an old one in the business part of the town, and a newer one outside, with a railway siding. In the latter division there is a large foundry, and between the two about 550 hands are employed. Coffee machinery is the principal product of these works, and water motors are said to be the next most important item of manufacture. The gross output is over 500 tons per month. It is calculated that more wrought than cast iron is used. For the woodwork in the coffee machinery, "peroba," the well-known native construction wood, is used.

Glass blowing is carried on at a long-established factory at Rio, and at two factories in São Paulo. I visited the one in Rio; it is worked by the owner and his two sons (so that the secrets are in the family) with Brazilian operatives, of whom about 300 are employed. There are two large and two or three small furnaces. The machinery, including a small steam engine, is all French. The factory has water frontage on the harbor. The value of the annual output is estimated at about 1,100,000\$000, the largest product being common tumblers and lamp chimneys, but a variety of other articles are also made, such as common decanters, cheese covers, vases, and lamp bodies (some opaque and colored, looking like porcelain), salt cellars, etc., but not any common wine or beer bottles. The sand comes from a place on the coast where the ground belongs to the owner of the factory; none is imported. Solvæ comes from England, and perhaps 600 barrels of it are used per annum. The owner of this factory believes that much of his make, which he ships up the coast, is sold as imported from Europe, and it certainly seemed to me that this was quite possible.

Another glass factory which was started with large capital came to grief, I understand, through poor management.

I have also visited the larger of the two São Paulo factories. This is comparatively new, having been working less than eighteen months. It is owned by strong people, and everything seems to be well done. It has a siding on the railway. There is one large furnace, with five openings. Some of the plant and machinery was made in the country, the remainder being French. The workmen, about 90, are chiefly French (specially brought out) and Italians, but Brazilian youths are learning the work. The product is entirely hard glass bottles for Pasteurized beer (which is made by both the two large breweries here), and it amounts to 18,000 bottles per day, 6,000 being made during each shift of eight hours. The raw materials used are sulphate of soda from Marseilles, local flint or slate stone roasted and powdered on the premises, and local yellow (with some brown) sand, no coloring material being

used. The factory is a few miles from town on the edge of a large expanse of marshy land, where, after digging a couple of meters of peat (good for fuel), they get their sand.

The only *earthenware* made in the country appears to be the common stuff of red clay. I visited one factory of this in Rio de Janeiro, belonging to the owner of the glass factory just referred to. The factory has three ovens, all on the down-draft system. A week intervenes between one firing of an oven and the next. There is a small French engine to work the mixers or crushers, and about 70 operatives are employed. The output is valued at 300,000\$000 per annum, and all is sold locally. The articles produced comprise water jugs, filters, flowerpots, etc. They seem to be fairly glazed and sometimes colored.

The making of *safety matches*, practically the only ones used in the country, is an important industry. I referred to this industry under the heading of "Terne plates," in my report, the matches being packed in boxes made from this material. The largest factory, which is allied with the great company in England and America, is said to be under admirable management, and to contain wonderful American labor-saving machinery. The outturn of this factory some time since was 630 tins per day, while only 50 operatives—some of them, it is true, being highly paid Americans—were employed, exclusive of the men in the repair shop. The factory which produces the best matches, however, imports everything, boxes, sticks, etc., ready, so that there is little more to do than to put the igniting composition on the sticks and then pack the matches in the boxes. This factory, which contains German machinery, was only producing 130 tins per day at the time when the big factory was turning out 630, but its price was just recently 55\$000 per tin (containing 120 packets of 10 small boxes each) against 52\$000 per tin for the product of the big factory, and 46\$000 and 45\$000, respectively, for the product of the two other factories. From these prices has to be deducted the consumption tax of 24\$000 per tin, a stamp of the value of 20 reis having to be affixed to each small box. I am told that great hardship was inflicted on importers in connection with the first imposition of this consumption tax, as only twenty-four hours' notice was given. It was thus impossible to get cases out of the bonded warehouses, where they had to be unpacked and each small box stamped, within the term allowed, and to increase the hardship the matches were not permitted to be reexported unless the import duties and consumption tax had been paid.

The making of stearin candles and of soap is carried on in a large, long-established, and well-managed factory in Rio de Janeiro, which has recently taken over a small competitor. In São Paulo there is a comparatively new factory, small, but well arranged, which I visited. The machinery in this factory is German and French, and includes a German steam engine of 50 horsepower. Forty to fifty operatives are usually employed. The productive capacity of the factory is about 5,000 boxes of candles per month. Each box weighs 10 kilos and contains 25 packets. Some of the packets contain 4, some 5, and some 6 candles, but the weight of each packet is identical. Of common soap, 25,000 to 30,000 boxes are also made here monthly. Each box contains 27 pieces, but there are 4 different sizes of piece, and the weight of a box varies from 3 to nearly 9 kilos.

Glycerin is also produced, and this article finds a little outlet locally to small fancy soap makers and for lubricating purposes, but the bulk has to be exported.

The price of the candles is about 17\$000 to 18\$000 a box, except when Rio makes heavy competition. The price of soap is from 1\$800 per box

of 3 kilos, to 5\$600 or 5\$800 per box of 8½ kilos. The tallow used at this factory comes from the River Plate, as the cost works out cheaper than that of the native article from Rio Grande do Sul. There are three boilers. Caustic soda, to the extent of about 30 drums per month, always comes from England, the stuff used being about 72 per cent. Sulphuric acid is bought from a local maker and is said to be almost as good as English; German acid was tried, but required several times the quantity to give the same effect.

Other local industries which may be mentioned are as follows, viz:

Breweries. (See my report dated the 4th instant, under "Beer and ale.")

Flour milling. (See my report dated the 4th instant, under "Corn.")

Tanning, boots and shoes. (See my report dated the 4th instant, under "Leather.")

Chemicals. (See my report dated the 4th instant, under "Chemical products." This industry will be further referred to.)

Bricks, tiles, and drainpipes.

Biscuits.

Sweetmeats.

Sugar refining. (See my report dated the 4th instant, under "Sugar, refined.")

Paper. (See my report dated the 4th instant.)

SÃO PAULO, November 29, 1896.

APPENDIX I.

Table for calculating warehouse charges by dividing the duties leviable, according to law No. 428 of December, 1896.

[Extracted from pamphlet referred to at page 95.]

Rate of duty leviable.	Rate of warehouse charges according to the period for which the goods are stored.			
	Up to 30 days 1 per cent ad valorem per month.	Up to 60 days 1½ per cent ad valorem per month.	Up to 90 days 2 per cent ad valorem per month.	More than 90 days 2 per cent ad va- lorem per month.
	Divisors.			
5 per cent.....	5	3.33	2.5	1.66
7 per cent.....	7	4.66	3.5	2.33
10 per cent.....	10	6.66	5	3.33
13 per cent.....	13	8.66	6.5	4.33
15 per cent.....	15	10	7.5	5
20 per cent.....	20	13.33	10	6.66
25 per cent.....	25	16.66	12.5	8.33
30 per cent.....	30	20	15	10
40 per cent.....	40	26.66	20	13.33
45 per cent.....	45	30	22.5	15
48 per cent.....	48	32	24	16
50 per cent.....	50	33.33	25	16.66
60 per cent.....	60	40	30	20
62 per cent.....	62	41.33	31	20.66
67 per cent.....	67	44.66	33.5	22.33
78 per cent.....	78	52	39	26
84 per cent.....	84	56	42	28

NOTE.—The import duties are to be divided by the corresponding divisor according to the period during which the goods are stored in the warehouses, and the result will be the warehouse charge per month.

Since the above was written it has been decided to close this factory, part of the machinery having been sold to the big candle factory in Rio, and part to the large soap boilers here.

APPENDIX II.

(See page 97.)

Tenders for the supply of 120,000 tons of steam coal to the Central (State) Railway were opened in the presence of the officials of the railway and the representatives of the tenderers. The tenders were as follows:

1. Toms Creek Coal and Coke Company, of Virginia. To deliver at the wharf at 25s. 10d. per ton, plus 2s to the wharf.
2. The Brazilian Coal Company, Cory Bros. To deliver in the railway wagons at 32s.
3. Visconde Rodrigues de Oliveira. To deliver best Cardiff c. i. f. at 29s. 9d.
4. The Tredegar Iron and Coal Company. To deliver Tredegar coal c. i. f. at 29s. 10d.
5. Empresa Industrial Brasileira, Candido Caetano Ferraz. To deliver Cardiff best steam c. i. f. at 29s. 9d.
6. Norton Megaw & Co. New River coal, run of mine, c. i. f. at 27s. 11d.
7. John Sunley & Co., London, Wilson, Sons & Co. To deliver best Cardiff steam coal c. i. f. at 31s. 9d. per ton.
8. John Carew & Co. To deliver Virginia coal c. i. f. at 28s. 6d. per ton.
9. João Cordeiro da Graça. To deliver best Cardiff steam coal c. i. f. at 28s. 9d. per ton.
10. Marianno de Medeiros. To deliver best Cardiff steam coal c. i. f. at 28s. 9d. per ton.
11. Lage Irmãos. To deliver Powell Duffryn coal in the cars at 33s. per ton; to deliver Crown patent fuel in the cars at 32s. per ton; to deliver 50,000 tons of Pocahontas steam coal into the railway wagons at 29s. per ton, exclusive of Clause III of the call for tenders.

APPENDIX III.

EXTRACT FROM THE GERMAN TRADE JOURNAL O TRAFICO D' EXPORTAÇÃO.

(See page 117.)

Este periodico allemão tem por fim de introduzir a industria allemã nos mercados ultramarinos e de provar a productividade da mesma, opposto ás falsas asserções dos inglezes, cuja estrella va apagando-se. *A industria allemã está em todos os respeitois á altura da situação e capaz de competir favoravelmente ao mercado universal com a industria de qualquer outro paiz civilizado.*

[Translation.]

The object of this German periodical is to introduce German industry into foreign markets and to prove its capability, in opposition to the false statements of the English, whose star is setting. German industry is in all respects up to date and capable of competing successfully in the world's markets with the industry of any other civilized country.

FIFTH REPORT.

BRAZIL—Part II.

RIO GRANDE DO SUL, *December 20, 1898.*

The SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

SIR: My Rio de Janeiro report was dated the 14th ultimo, and on the 29th ultimo I addressed you a memorandum re national industries in the Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo districts.

I spent over three weeks in São Paulo. I then visited the port of Santos; proceeded, via Santos, Paranagua, San Francisco, Desterro, and this port, to Porto Alegre (the capital and chief port of this the most southern province of Brazil), where I have just spent a week, besides two days in Pelotas and three here, and am now about to embark for Montevideo.

São Paulo is the capital of the great coffee-growing State of that name, and the distributing center for the neighboring port of Santos. In 1893 the population of São Paulo City and suburbs was 143,000 by census, and a careful estimate by the State statistician, Dr. Toledo Pisa, makes it to-day about 230,000. The population of Santos, I understand, is some 20,000.

São Paulo may be considered the converging point of five principal railways: The São Paulo Railway (British), to Santos; the Central (Government) to Rio de Janeiro and the east; the Paulista (national) to the northwest (in connection with the São Paulo Railway as far as Jundiaby); the Mogyana (national) to the north (in connection with the São Paulo to Jundiaby and the Paulista, thence to Campinas), and the Sorocabama (national) to the west. These railways, excluding the Central, which should be considered rather as belonging to Rio, have a combined mileage of about 2,430 kilometers—i. e., over 1,500 miles. I mention these facts in proof of the importance of this place, which, it seems to me, hardly receives the attention it deserves from British merchants and capitalists.

The control of the tramways has just been obtained by French capitalists, and the same interests have recently purchased two cotton mills (with water power) in the district, while German capital is lent largely upon mortgage of coffee estates, a better business than buying them at high prices. All such investments mean naturally the influencing of supplies from German and French sources. Then, again, the Italian element exercises a powerful influence in favor of Italian commerce, owing to the immense number of Italian immigrants, estimated at 800,000 to 1,000,000 for the whole province.

The total of European and United States collections by drafts on São Paulo and Santos, based on figures I obtained by the courtesy of the leading foreign (i. e., not national) banks in those places, must amount to between £1,000,000 and £1,250,000 for a year past, while the amount of remittances by merchants, exclusive of account-current

remittances by importing dealers, I should say probably bears a larger proportion to the total in these two places than it does in Rio de Janeiro. I mention this in connection with what I wrote on this subject (i. e., the amount of import business and how transacted) in my report from Rio de Janeiro. It is noteworthy that in these places, São Paulo and Santos, there are a number of wealthy German houses of high standing whose local partners appear to be invested with full power—in some cases, indeed, they are themselves the principals or men who have apparently settled in the country—whilst British houses under quite the same conditions, might almost be said to be conspicuous by their absence. It is needless to say that the conditions named are more favorable to enterprise and development in business than what may be termed the agent and office-boy system.

The usual terms of payment are six months in the dry-goods trade, and four months in the hardware trade, from the end of the month in which the sale is made. In the direct trade from Europe to dealers here—that part of it at least which is done by drafts—German shippers and manufacturers are said to be often easier than British when quite satisfied as to the credit of drawers, allowing six months instead of four. Local factories sell at ninety days from the end of the month.

Complaints are made of the difficulty experienced by merchants in ascertaining the standing of the immense number of small Italian firms. These firms are frequently changing and are often not very reliable.

In the following report I include additional matter gleaned in Rio de Janeiro.

Alkali.—Soda ash and alkali ammonia are used in the Rio de Janeiro district by the soap makers, probably to the extent of some 6,000 barrels yearly between the two products named (including a little carbonate of soda for bleachers), but the amount of caustic soda consumed is comparatively trifling. In the São Paulo district the preference is said to be the other way, very little soda ash or alkali ammonia being used there compared with the amount of caustic soda.

The glass factory in Rio uses about 600 barrels per annum of soda ash (*solvæ*), but the one I visited in São Paulo (see “Memorandum on national industries” appended to my previous report) uses sulphate of soda from Marseilles. I have forwarded a sample bottle of this alkali, * * * which costs a fraction under 37 francs per barrel of 250 kilos c. i. f. to Santos, say about 25 francs f. o. b. Marseilles. In one invoice of 120 barrels (weighing 277 kilos gross, each), by steamer, the total freight was 200 francs, while in another, also of 120 barrels, by sailer, the freight was 130 francs.

The above-mentioned alkalis seem to be the only ones in which the trade is important, and, with the exception indicated, they appear to come entirely from England.

Soda crystals are produced by an Italian chemist in Rio, who is believed to have taken a great part of the trade there in this article. He is now working to produce chloride of lime, which is at present imported from England by those cotton mills which carry on bleaching operations. One of the largest of these mills uses nearly 200 cases a year.

I found that bicarbonate of soda has been displaced in the chief aerated water factory in São Paulo by powdered marble from Germany. This, although not so strong, is said to cost only one-half as much as bicarbonate of soda, and with the German machinery, which washes the gas thoroughly and is especially adapted to it, it is claimed that it is quite as serviceable.

Of the industries using alkalis I may say:

(1) Soap making is general in all important centers, and the industry will continue to exist.

(2) Paper making has not developed much, nor has it succeeded in producing commercially anything much superior to wrapping paper. Paper-making materials of one kind or another seem plentiful, but in a sparsely populated country it is doubtless difficult to systematize economically either the collection or gathering of such materials.

(3) Glass making has been referred to in the "Memorandum on national industries" appended to my previous report. The industry will probably continue to exist, although less favored by protection than some others, but there seems to be no scope for any great development.

Mineral-water making in large centers will continue, although of late the successful introduction of several natural waters of the country has affected the sale of all aerated waters very considerably.

Wool washing is not a Brazilian industry, the wool (produced in the extreme south) being sold greasy.

Caoutchouc, manufactures of, appear to be still largely of British origin—i. e., both sheets and tubing; but some German garden hose have been coming which is cheaper than British, and I have seen German samples of tubing and sheets which have been sent to likely buyers, who seemed to think that these also were cheaper than British now.

* * *

Carriages and wagons, railway.—These are both imported from England and the United States, and made by the railway administrations. The carriages imported are mostly built in the United States. An engineer of long experience related to me the following curious incident in regard to orders for railway material: He was visiting a well-known railway-wagon factory in England, when the manager showed him some railway-wagon frames sent to be copied—a large order—and remarked contemptuously that "they wouldn't make such stuff." The engineer, who recognized the frames as belonging to one of the national railways in the State of São Paulo, replied that he supposed they suited the company or they wouldn't want them. As a matter of fact, they were frames of American wagons, and the company expected to have them made (copied) cheap in England, intending to build the bodies themselves with native wood. The frames were of very simple construction and had little work in them, which seemed to be the reason for the English manager's contempt for them.

Cement still comes from England for use on the extensive new work of the São Paulo Railway, but the great bulk of the trade in São Paulo, as in Rio, is in German and Belgian hands. A merchant described the trade to me by saying "put an eagle of some kind on the outside of the barrel and you can put anything you like, so to speak, inside."

Chemical products and dyestuffs.—German aniline dyes are the favorites in São Paulo, as in Rio. There are now several firms represented by travelers, I understand, but the first one (referred to in my Rio report) has the advantage of having been the first in the field.

Starch is all German—one brand.

Clay, unmanufactured.—Fire clay is imported to a comparatively small extent only. It comes from Marseilles as well as from England.

Coal.—Referring to what I wrote from Rio, one merchant in São Paulo, who does about 30,000 tons per annum, told me he had just written to his correspondents in the United States for full particulars about the Pocahontas coal—"must be able to compete." I inclose a

cutting, from the Brazilian Review, giving particulars of the tenders for supplying the Government railway (Central) which were cited shortly in the cutting appended to my previous report; also an advertisement in the same paper of another United States coal. (See Appendices I and II, pp. 146-148.)

Cordage and twine.—There is a large importation of these from Italy into the São Paulo district for country use. I have forwarded two small samples of this cordage, which is invoiced from Italy in Portuguese as “corda de juta branca” (cordage of white jute), and append invoice particulars showing assortment and cost, as follows:

No. 6430 contem:

5	kilos de m/m	4
5	“	6
8	“	8
12	“	10
15	“	12
15	“	14
14	“	16
13	“	18
13	“	20

100 kilos
4, 901 “ 49 fardos iguaes o acima No. 6431—79.

		Frs. a.
5, 001	“ Corda de juta branca á 4 fios a fr. —. 70	3, 500. 70
	Frete marítimo m.o. 8.3 á fr. 27.50	228. 25
	10 %	22. 85
	Despezas consulares	10. 50
	Visto da policia	2. 50
	Seguro marítimo em frs. 4, 200	21. 60
=posto á Santos abordo = Total		3, 786. 40

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

(a) *Piece goods.*—With regard to printed goods, I have to refer to what I wrote from Rio, and also to my memorandum of the 29th ultimo respecting national industries, and to report that I have now forwarded samples of national cloth printed at the works in the São Paulo district, as follows:

- * * * National prints: Assortment No. 1, white grounds.
- * * * National prints: Assortment No. 16, colored grounds.
- * * * National prints: Special assortment, colored grounds.

A piece of 65 meters weighed 6.35 kilos.

Of wove colored goods, gingham, checks, trousering, etc., I have forwarded samples collected in São Paulo, as follows:

* * * Italian gingham, 70 centimeters wide, sold here at 710 reis per meter (probably based on 7½d. exchange).

* * * German gingham (imitation Italian), 68 centimeters wide, sold here at 680 reis per meter (probably based on 7½d. exchange).

* * * German gingham (imitation Italian), 63 to 64 centimeters wide, sold here at 520 reis per meter (probably based on 7½d. exchange).

* * * Italian checks and trouserings, 63 to 64 centimeters wide; cost, packed and placed in Genoa, 0.47 lira per meter; weight, 145 grams per meter; 42 pieces, each a different pattern, in case; minimum, 6 pieces of one pattern; pieces are from 42 to 46 meters in length.

* * * German trouserings, 65 centimeters wide: cost, packed and placed in Hamburg, 0.55 mark per meter, less 4 per cent and 2 per cent.

* * * National checks, 65 centimeters wide, made from imported yarn said to be Italian; price now about 1\$000 per meter.

* * * National checks, 66 centimeters wide, from native yarn; price now about 600 reis per meter.

* * * Italian black diagonal, 130 to 134 centimeters wide; sold here at 1\$800 per meter (probably based on 8d. exchange).

* * * Italian black diagonal, 65 to 67 centimeters wide; sold here at 1\$300 per meter (probably based on 6d. exchange).

It may be said, I believe, of goods comprised under this heading, that heavy, coarse goods (on which duty comes out especially high) are mostly national, as also are the best quality of imitation cashmeres, but in lighter medium qualities of trouserings and checks, the majority, perhaps 80 per cent, are imported. Italy makes these very well, but she was not able to hold her ground entirely when exchange dropped, and English imitations, chiefly (and in lesser degree German ones) of "tessuti italiani" and "tela florida," are most sold at present. The Italians are said to be fast taking all the trade in black diagonals.

(b) *Hosiery—Stockings and socks.*—Confirming what I have written under this heading in my previous report, I have now to refer to samples which I have since dispatched from São Paulo, as follows:

* * * A box containing 1 dozen German imitation of French socks, sold here at 10\$200 per dozen (probably based on 7½d. exchange).

* * * A box containing 1 dozen national unbleached socks, No. 213 (193); price, as per inclosed printed list of the factory,¹ 4\$000 per dozen—actually sold at 3\$250 per dozen.

* * * A box containing 1 dozen national colored socks, No. 2613; price, as per inclosed printed list of the factory,¹ 6\$500—actually sold net at 5\$800 per dozen.

In regard to the distribution of cotton goods in the State of São Paulo, it is perhaps worth remarking that Syrians have ousted Italians as itinerant peddlers. There are estimated to be some 30,000 of these people in the business, including some well-to-do merchants, who buy from the German houses in São Paulo; one at least of these, whom I visited, is now himself importing from Manchester.

Earthen and chinaware, including manufactures of clay.—In stoneware English makes hold the market, but in other earthenware, such as imitation French porcelain and common porcelain, they have a hard fight with continental goods; and were it not for the enterprise of certain makers in regularly visiting the market, following buyers' indications of what is required, and studying how to make everything light in weight (for duty), etc., they would probably be little heard of. As it is, in São Paulo at least, they are well to the front, and, so far as regards goods of large sale, it appears to be only in common bowls and chambers that the continental makes are acknowledged as distinctly more suitable. I have forwarded samples of these as follows:

1. A French († Belgian) bowl, No. 8, which cost 17.45 francs per hundred, less 20 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

2. A French († Belgian) bowl, No. 9, which cost 12.95 francs per hundred, less 20 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

3. A French († Belgian) bowl, No. 10, which cost 10.15 francs per hundred, less 20 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

4. A French († Belgian) bowl, No. 11, which cost 9 francs per hundred, less 20 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

5. A French († Belgian) bowl, No. 13, which cost 7.85 francs per hundred, less 20 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

6. A Dutch bowl, No. 14, which cost 6 francs per hundred, less 20 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

¹ See Appendix III, p. 148.

7. A French († Belgian) bowl, No. 15, which cost 5.50 francs per hundred, less 20 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

8. A Dutch bowl, No. 16, which cost 0.40 francs per dozen, less 2 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

9. A French († Belgian) chamber (No. 6). These cost, for Nos. 3, 4, 5, and 6 sizes respectively, 0.90, 0.70, 0.55, and 0.40 francs each, less 20 per cent, placed in Antwerp.

10. A French († Belgian) fancy plate; exact particulars not obtainable. The sale of these articles is considerable.

In many articles of common use (as, for example, chambers, to which this remark is especially applicable) enameled hollow ware has made large inroads upon the sale of earthenware articles, but there is one article of large use in this country, namely, small coffee cups (and saucers), which can never be replaced to any extent by enameled ware, because the latter burns the lips. I have forwarded a sample * * * of a French († Belgian) coffee cup and saucer, costing 2.10 francs per dozen, less 2 per cent, placed in Antwerp, which is considered suitable. Coffee being commonly taken at intervals during the day, only very small sizes of these cups are used.

Porcelain of best quality is all French, but imitations are much more largely sold. It was stated to me, as an instance of the want of thought sometimes exhibited by English manufacturers, that a manufacturer in shipping some cheap porcelain painted cups and saucers to this market put on them the same designs as he had previously been sending on earthenware goods. It is safe to say this is not a mistake which would be made on the Continent.

Fancy articles, such as vases, painted earthenware, flower-pots, common porcelain center pieces, little fancy coffee sets, and common porcelain ornaments of all kinds, are mostly German. Earthenware spittoons are German, but majolica are English.

Earthenware beer bottles and preserve jars are very little used, and only a trifling trade is done in those for acids. Such trade as there is in the latter, however, is mostly British. Carbon filters have practically gone out in favor of the French "Pasteur" filter. Sanitary earthenware seems to be mostly British; but large drain pipes (and very good ones) are now being made in the country, as also are roofing tiles; the latter are similar to the Marseilles tiles, which have hitherto formed a considerable import.

In red earthenware the Germans, by studying to make a light article, have practically put English makes out of the market. I have forwarded a sample * * * of a German water bottle (with stopper and plate), which cost 1.60 marks each, less 15 per cent and 2 per cent, placed in Hamburg. This is an article of very large use in the country; the native make, referred to in my memorandum of the 29th ultimo, is considered inferior to the imported.

I understand some charge is made for cost of package and packing in the case of all the earthenware of which I have sent samples. The charges, however, are moderate, the highest for a large cask, including packing, etc., being 16 francs.

GLASS.

(b) *Flint*.—I saw some common heavy glasses (goblets) of English make at São Paulo, but they seem to be somewhat exceptional. The commonest kinds here, as in the Rio market, are supplied largely by the national factories, and almost all others are imported from the continent.

An importer told me he made more in selling German imitations of French beer glasses at 20\$000 per dozen than in selling the French glasses themselves at 28\$000 per dozen. I understand electric insulators are chiefly American.

(c) *Common bottles.*—Those I saw being made at the factory in São Paulo referred to in my memorandum of the 29th ultimo, and which are evidently the same as those the owner of the Rio glass works mentioned (see my report of the 4th ultimo), are, I am told, sold to the two large local breweries at 250 reis per bottle. I understand they have to endure a temperature of 72° C. with the beer in them.

HARDWARE AND CUTLERY.

Hollow-ware.—I heard in São Paulo that German cast hollow-ware was being imported. It was said to be heavier than the English (which has hitherto held the market), but so much cheaper that cost per piece was less.

The largest trade in hollow-ware, however, is in wrought enameled goods, in which the Continental (chiefly German) article has by its cheapness long since ousted the English, and (more recently) the American agate ware. The trade in retinned wrought is much smaller and less important, I am told, than that in cast ware (retinned and enameled). A merchant in São Paulo told me that a large shipping house in the German black country had their own agent in Rio to watch and study the market; that he had done business with this house, and found their representative in Rio could tell him what to order better than he knew himself.

Cutlery.—One English agent told me he found German goods coming in cheaper all round, and he was telling his principals in England to send German samples.

Implements and tools of industry.—The trade in carpenters' tools seems to be chiefly in the hands of the German merchants. Speaking generally, the better quality of such tools is, I understand, of British make and the poorer German, the better quality German being comparatively expensive.

Of agricultural tools, spades and shovels are of both English and American make. Axes are mostly American, whilst hoes, which used to be exclusively British, are now partly German. Importers (Brazilian) of a well-known mark of English hoe, which used to hold this market, told me that latterly they had been kept waiting a year for the completion of an order, with the result that they were constrained to try a German hoe. This cost about 30 per cent less than the English, but buyers had to take it, and are now becoming accustomed to it, to the detriment of the formerly preeminent position held by the English article. I have forwarded a sample of this German hoe * * * and may remark that the difficulty of obtaining prompt execution of orders has been often brought to my notice in regard to other articles of British manufacture, whilst it hardly seems to exist in regard to imports from the United States, and only to a very limited extent in regard to imports from the Continent.

LEATHER.

(a) *Unwrought.*—I understand that local tanneries in different towns in this province supply the chief part of the local demand. A factory to tan leather by an electric process has just been put up near São Paulo.

In Santos a German chemist, under the auspices of the leading German house there, is studying, I was told, to extract tannin from mangrove leaves (which are much used for tanning in the country, and of which the supply is very large) in a form suitable for shipment to Europe.

(b) *Wrought, boots and shoes.*—The trade in the São Paulo province appears to be almost entirely in locally made goods. There is no large factory, but the work is farmed out and the workmen, all Italians, often supply the material. There is only a small import of English goods—for those who want to pay for them, as a large dealer said to me.

LINEN MANUFACTURES.

(a) *White or plain.*—There is said to be little competition with the British article in pure linen goods, whether drills, sheetings, frontings, or handkerchiefs, etc. This trade, of which drills for the army form a large, if not the greater, part, is probably of less importance in the Rio and São Paulo provinces than in mixed goods, the bulk of which appear to be Belgian. Among cotton imitations, I noticed Italian tablecloths, but they were coarse and inferior compared with British imitations.

(b) *Printed, checked, and dyed.*—Union drills are worn in São Paulo in the summer by many well-to-do people, printed goods being more in vogue than those woven in colors. The trade used to be entirely in a well-known British make, but German goods have come in of late, and are reported to be getting an increasing sale. I have forwarded a sample * * * of these German printed union drills, 67 to 68 centimeters wide, which are put up in 25 meter pieces, 30 in a case, and packed in imitation of the British make just referred to. These drills have been selling in São Paulo, I understand, at 2\$600 per meter, on a basis of 6d. exchange, when the price of the British article was 3\$000 per meter.

(d) *Thread for sewing.*—French importers say that the best boot-makers' thread is British, but Belgian is cheaper.

Medicines, drugs, etc.—Quinine is imported largely from England. A good deal of Glauber's salts comes from England, but its importation is not nearly so large as that of Epsom salts. This latter, in São Paulo at least, is said to be all German. Castor oil is an important import, and comes to São Paulo from Germany in boxes marked "London."

MACHINERY.

(a) *Steam engines.*—The majority of the stationary engines in São Paulo, as in Rio, are, I should say, of British make, but whether this will continue to be the case seems doubtful. One instance of how business sometimes goes away from us came under my notice in connection with stationary engines. It is as follows: Large Brazilian importers and mechanicians had dealt with certain British engine makers for a number of years, doing a regular and considerable business, chiefly in small-sized engines. They had occasion, however, to order a large engine, 100 horsepower, and again one of 150 horsepower; to their surprise, these came out in a deplorable condition, and cost them heavily to set right, not to mention loss of prestige with their clients; and still more to their surprise, notwithstanding their long and pleasant relations with the makers, the latter would admit nothing and give them no satisfaction whatever. After this experience they contemplated sending their orders, at least for large engines, to the Continent,

confident of no such treatment there, but meantime the traveler of large United States makers visited them and closed a contract for five years. They remarked to me that their English friends, so far from sending a traveler, would hardly take time to speak to them when they went to see them in England, although their account was worth £20,000 per annum.

Locomotives.—On one of the principal national lines (meter gauge) these used to be all British, but I am assured on good authority that the makers who supplied them lost the trade through insisting upon plate-frame engines when the company wanted to have bar-frame, and generally through putting in their plans instead of what was asked for. Now, after an interval during which the business went to the United States, another British firm has got in again. For the meter-gauge portion of the other principal national railway British locomotives are also being imported, but for their broad gauge (5 feet 6 inches) they get the United States engines, of which description 80 per cent of their stock already consists. The railway people say that when the Baldwins sell a cheap engine the quality corresponds; but if a certain class of work be required they send what is wanted, and the cost is still cheaper than that of British engines. They also remarked to me upon the slowness of British makers to adopt improvements ("always do so last," and instanced the long fire box, 110-inch, on passenger engines, a very suitable continental innovation (for this country at least), which has been adopted by United States makers, while English makers will not make fire boxes over 80 inches long. This railway had ten new freight engines, heavier than anything I have seen in England, each engine having eight wheels coupled, carrying 65 tons on the drivers (total weight 75 tons without tender), and a 70-inch boiler. The management were getting more of these. I visited the very extensive and admirably mounted shops of this railway, the machinery in which is mostly English (with some United States), and conversed a long time with the manager and locomotive superintendent. Could our manufacturers at home do this, or, indeed, visit almost any of the leading factories in this country, I think it would be a revelation to many of them. They would then realize what some, at least, often do not appear to realize, viz, that the working heads of these places, many of them with a good English (or German) mechanical training to start with, are usually not only well up in English methods of doing the work in hand, but by force of circumstances have more or less intimate acquaintance with other methods too, and have often adopted improvements of their own suitable to local conditions—in short, that they are capable and not ignorant men.

(b) *Of other sorts.*—Referring to the observations in my memorandum of the 29th ultimo respecting coffee-cleaning machinery made in the São Paulo district, I have now to report having forwarded illustrations of some of the machines made at the factory I visited there. Field railways are used on many of the larger coffee estates, and these are either of the French make or of a German make like it. English makes have been tried in vain. One importer told me that he had been sent some plant of English manufacture by a mistake on the part of his agent, and that he had great trouble to get rid of it, as it was far too heavy.

Light plows for coffee plantations come from the United States, as do also other field machines. The demand for the latter, hitherto very small, is expected to improve somewhat with the increased adoption of more varied farming.

METALS.

(1.) IRON.—(a) *Old, for remanufacture*.—This appears to be a regular, though small, export from the São Paulo province. A cargo of 1,500 tons had just gone from Santos to Italy when I was there.

(b) *Pig*.—This is mostly English, but United States makers are trying to get a share of the trade.

(c) *Bar, angle, bolt, and rod*.—Belgian and German makes of these would seem to prevail, but a good deal of English is also imported. Building girders are all of Belgian manufacture.

(d) *Railroads of all sorts*.—In springs, wheels, axles, brakes, etc., the principal competition our manufacturers have to meet is also Belgian, but the business in this instance is said to be very largely British.

(f) *Sheets*.—Galvanized sheets used to be all English, but now some plain (not corrugated) sheets, which are used a good deal in certain coffee machines, are coming from Belgium.

(g) *Tinned plates*.—These are reported to be still largely used in the São Paulo district for guttering, etc.

(h) *Cast or wrought, and all other iron manufactures*.—In bridge work the competition which is chiefly felt is again Belgian. I am told 50 per cent of the indents for bridges go accompanied by full specifications. The manager of a leading railway asked me—and the question has been practically repeated to me by more than one English engineer—"Why are not English bridge builders, when asked for a bridge of a certain span to carry a specified weight, prepared to state at once what is requisite and to furnish plans themselves, like the United States builders, who have everything reduced to a system, with well-settled standards, and are ready to state and quote at once, without requiring consulting engineers' plans, which add so much to the cost?" The same manager gave me an instance of the want of thought and care in English invoicing and shipping—a want not experienced in shipments from the Continent. Recently a bridge came out from England with all the small pieces, rivets, bolts, etc., mixed up in the same cases, and no separate weights were specified, with the result that not only was great trouble caused to the railway company, but they also had to pay duty on the whole of the mixed-up articles at the highest tariff rate—on screws, for instance, at, I think, 600 reis per kilo. A reference to the tariff, which should always be at hand in invoicing, would have prevented this. Care should also be taken to get a shipment of this kind, if possible, all together in the steamer. A failure to do so not only means delay on receipt, but extra custom-house store rent—a heavy item.

An instance under similar circumstances to those just related, showing the care and thought exercised by our competitors in packing and invoicing, was given to me by a merchant in São Paulo. He ordered from Germany a shipment of flat varnish brushes, but forgot to state that the wooden handles must come packed separately from the brushes themselves, as otherwise the high duty on the latter would be applied to the whole invoice; nevertheless, the handles and the brushes came packed separately, with their respective weights properly stated.

Wrought-iron pipes, both black and galvanized, are beginning to come from the United States. Large cast-iron pipes for the Santos waterworks are also now coming from the United States, I understand, under contract by tender in London.

Wire nails (Paris points) are made at a factory in São Paulo, and this source supplies local requirements.

Engineers' bolts and nuts come largely from Germany. I have forwarded a sample * * * of a German bolt and nut, $2\frac{1}{2}$ inches by $\frac{5}{8}$ inch, said to be 12 per cent cheaper than the corresponding English one, a sample of which is also sent * * * for comparison.

(2) **BRASS OF ALL SORTS.**—Brass cocks, joints, etc., still come very largely from England, but importers can not get them made light enough, and American samples are attracting attention.

Mineral or aerated waters.—A good deal of the local industry is engaged, I am inclined to think, in imitating the best known European waters, at all events apollinaris, which appears to have by far the largest sale. I was told in Rio de Janeiro of two local imitators of this water (already alluded to in my report from that place), one of whom had been fined 10 contos (about £30) and the other double that sum, but who continue to carry on their trade merrily. Imprisonment used to be provided for imitators, but now the penalty is only a fine. The fraudulent business must be very profitable. A wine merchant told me that he had heard of an order of 5,000 old apollinaris bottles, and that a perfect bottle with labels is worth 300 reis; the agents, however, informed me that old labels were rarely, if ever, perfect, and that the bulk are imitations printed here. I forward a couple of labels, apparently both the same, and a cork with one of them, which I took off bottles on board different steamers of the same line along the coast.

There is, however, in Rio, one factory, at least, which works on its own merit. I saw a price list of this factory, quoting ginger ale, tonic quinine, and lemonade 3\$600 per dozen; and soda and seltzer, 2\$400 ex bottles, less 7 per cent to purchasing dealer.

In São Paulo I visited the leading factory there, to which I have already referred under the heading of "Alkali." Here also the waters are sold under their own name. The capacity of the plant is 10,000 bottles daily. The city supply of water is used after passing through a large Berkenfeld filter. The factory, which is about to extend by moving part of the works to new premises, also distills spirits, rectifies rough Italian wines, and makes liqueurs, vinegar, perfumery articles, etc. It employs about 80 hands in all. The machinery is German, except a small English steam engine and boiler. Essences for aerated waters come from England, those for perfumery from Paris, and other chemicals from Hamburg.

Musical instruments.—Pianos are practically all German. Common ones, in pine, are largely imported from Germany, but in better class instruments (say, value about £30), I understand that there is a trifling English competition.

There is a large sale of German or Austrian concertinas.

Painters' colors and materials.—Zinc white, which all comes from Belgium, seems to have almost ousted white lead from the São Paulo market. Even the railways are giving up the latter. The zinc does not turn yellow, it is said.

Red lead and other paints (in powder) are mostly German.

Varnish is still English. Besides some of the well-known names, a new maker, apparently German, though manufacturing in England, is entering the São Paulo market.

Paper for hangings is printed in the country; but I believe the paper itself is imported, chiefly from the Continent. This applies to ordinary quality hangings; better qualities are imported ready.

Salt comes from the western Mediterranean littoral (Almeria and other ports) in considerable quantities (cargoes of 1,500 tons) to Santos, whence it is sent up to São Paulo in bulk, and there packed in bags for

sale to upcountry stock raisers. This salt is in small crystals from one-fourth inch to an inch long, and, notwithstanding duties, competes successfully with the Mossoró salt. * * * This latter has an appearance somewhat opaque, and is less liked; moreover, the coasting law has made freight on it too high. English rock salt has been tried for these stock raisers; but, although some near São Paulo have used it, it has not found favor generally, and is said to be too dear.

Soap.—Local factories supply ordinary kinds and some fancy goods; higher class fancy goods are largely French. One maker of fancy soap in Rio de Janeiro, I understand, imports the rough soap from New York, just shaves it down, scents, colors, and molds it, puts on Portuguese labels, and rather makes it appear, by the aid of accompanying advertisements, as some special Portuguese soap.

Slates are not imported, and roofs are all tiled, either with common rough red tiles or with the Marseilles type (see ante, under Earthenware).

Grindstones, millstones, etc.—Grindstones (emery), bath bricks, and millstones would seem to come mostly from England, the first-named article constituting the most important trade of the three. Millstones, of a black, porous stone, come from Portugal.

Of sandpaper and emery paper very little now comes from England, the import being chiefly a German and (probably to a less extent) an American one. I have forwarded two samples of the former, as follows, viz:

* * * A German sandpaper, qualities assorted; cost, 14.39 marks per 1,000 sheets, packed, f. o. b. Hamburg.

* * * A German emery paper, qualities assorted; cost, 32.95 marks per 1,000 sheets, packed, f. o. b. Hamburg.

Tea.—The use of tea is practically confined to the large towns, and even in these seems to be very much of an exotic.

Umbrellas and parasols.—Excepting some high-class goods which are imported, the trade seems to be done by importing frames and covers separately, and making them up here. A leading house in São Paulo do all their business in these articles with Paris.

Wood and timber.—Native woods, which are excellent, ought to supply the whole demand, but as a matter of fact a great deal of sawn pine is imported. It is said to stand exposure to the weather better than corresponding native woods; but possibly want of care in seasoning may more or less account for this. The railways use native timber largely (one at least of them exclusively) for rolling stock, repair, and construction.

Creosoted sleepers come from England.

Old wine casks are cut up and used for making quarter casks and other vessels for country use.

Woolen and worsted yarns.—There is a small import of these for the new mill in São Paulo (see Memorandum *re* national industries appended to previous report).

WOOLEN AND WORSTED MANUFACTURES.

(a and b) *Tissues, woolen, worsted, and mixed.*—During the summer, so a leading dealer in São Paulo told me, cashmeres are generally sold weighing from 380 to 450 grams per meter (140 cm. wide), and the consumption is as much in colored goods as in black and blue (serges, diagonals, and twills). The goods upon which the demand chiefly runs cost from 3s. to 4s. Union linen drills, however, interfere with woolen goods at this season.

In ordinary winters, goods from 600 to 750 grams per meter find most sale. Those which weigh more than 630 grams per meter (140 cm. wide, inclusive of the salvage) are favored by the duty, which is only seven-twelfths of that paid by lighter tissues; so that a heavy cloth costing, say, not over 5s., will come out about the same to sell as a light one at 3s. and a few pence. In these heavy goods—630 grams per meter, 140 cm. wide (equivalent to 450 grams per square meter)—the largest sale is of serges and diagonals, say, from 3s. to 5s. The demand for colored cashmeres of this weight is small. Cheviots are now beginning to come in. Three-fourths of the woolen and worsted goods imported are estimated to be English, and the remainder continental; nevertheless, in the direct trade to tailors, in São Paulo at least, French houses (by travelers) sell most of the English goods, and the one English traveler I met told he was the only one in the direct trade. Probably French goods could not have obtained as good a hold as they have if English makers had been more ready to make double-width goods (140 cm.), which is what is wanted.

National goods are not yet very serious competitors, whatever they may become in the future. I have forwarded samples of those made at the São Paulo factory (referred to in the memorandum appended to my previous report), as follows, viz:

* * * "Penteado" 13, white serge 74 cm. wide; weight, 200 grams per meter; price, 4\$000 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 14, serge in green, maroon, blue, and black, 140 cm. wide; weight, 480 grams per meter; price, 8\$000 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 15, serge in black, maroon, and blue, 140 cm. wide; weight, 445 grams per meter; price, 6\$800 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 16, serge in five shades, 140 cm. wide; weight, 435 grams per meter; price, 7\$500 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 17, serge in three shades, 140 cm. wide; weight, 435 grams per meter; price, 7\$500 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 18, serge in four shades, 140 cm. wide; weight, 485 grams per meter; price, 8\$000 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 10, blue twilled flannel, 140 cm. wide; weight, 290 grams per meter; price, 7\$500 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 9, blue cloth in three shades, C, D, and E, 140 cm. wide; weight, 490 grams per meter; price, 9\$000 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 12A., brown cloth, 140 cm. wide; weight, about 480 grams per meter; price, about 8\$000 per meter.

* * * "Penteado" 8, black serge, 140 cm. wide; weight, 410 grams per meter; price, about 7\$000 per meter.

I may mention that a 14 to 15 ounce cloth (say 360 to 380 grams per meter), of average quality, is calculated roughly to cost here, duty paid, twice as many milreis as it costs shillings in England.

(c) *Flannels*, both colored and fancy, are almost all German. Printed cotton flannels are largely German, but wove colored cotton flannels are English, and a good deal in vogue at present.

PORTO ALEGRE.

This town has about 90,000 inhabitants. It is the capital of the State of Rio Grande do Sul, and the most important town in Brazil south of São Paulo. Porto Alegre, some 30 miles up the river Guahyba, at the north end of the Lagoa dos Patos; Pelotas (about 30,000 inhabitants), a few miles up the Gonçalves River from the south end of the same lake; and Jaguarão, some miles up the river of the same name,

which runs into Lake Mirim (connected by the Gonçalves River with Dos Patos Lake), are the principal interior ports of the State. All these are connected by steamer with the port (about 20,000 inhabitants) of Rio Grande do Sul, through which all over-sea foreign traffic with this State comes. The products of the country (the whole of which is well south of the Tropics) are similar to those of the Republic of Uruguay rather than to those of tropical Brazil. One feature in its development is the number of European colonies; of these the most important are the German colonies in the Hamburgoberg district, the population of which is estimated at 110,000, and the Italian colonies in the Caxias district, estimated at 100,000. As a railway center Porto Alegre may become of great importance in the future, as will be seen by a reference to the consular report upon the trade of Rio Grande do Sul and Porto Alegre for the year 1897. * * *

Since that report was written the Porto Alegre and Uruguayana Railway, belonging to the Federal Government, has been leased to the Sud Ovest Brazilian Railway (therein referred to), and it is reported that the Government has granted a concession to a Brazilian, who is supposed to have German capital behind him, for the building of the line to Caxias. * * *

From estimates made by the banks in Porto Alegre and Rio Grande, I should put the total foreign imports through these places and Pelotas at not more than £2,500,000 sterling. Doubtless the buying power of the country has been lessened (for a time) by the low prices of beans, maize, etc., in Rio de Janeiro, and specially by the destruction of cattle at the time of the local revolution a few years ago, from which the country is only now beginning slowly to recover. Mention must be made, too, of the Federal tax imposed upon the import of cattle from across the Uruguayan frontier, which further reduces the number of animals available for the *xarqueadas*, or jerked beef establishments—by far the most important single industry of the State. The foreign (non-Brazilian) merchants are principally German; this always has been the case, I understand, in Porto Alegre, but was not so in the port of Rio Grande in former days, when it was more of a distributing point and less of a mere transfer place than it is at the present time. A good deal of business, I gather, is done by travelers.

The usual terms of payment in Porto Alegre are called six months, less 4 per cent, in the dry-goods trade; that is, the account, made up with 4 per cent deducted, is payable six months from the end of the month in which the sale was made, and a month's grace is given after that. This month's extension has apparently arisen out of what are called cash terms, which means that the account, made up with 10 per cent deducted, is payable in thirty days from the end of the month in which the sale was made. In the hardware trade terms are always understood to be cash; accounts are made up at the end of the month, with 10 per cent deducted, and are supposed to be paid on the 15th of the following month; if payment be more than a week or two later than this the discount is reduced at the rate of 1 per cent per month. Certain articles, however, are sold on this basis, but without any discount, prices being net—e. g., tinned plates, galvanized-iron sheets, wire, petroleum, rosin, and flour. It may be said that the foregoing applies primarily to sales to town dealers; some houses, who sell hardware direct up-country have established for that trade a basis of four months less 10 per cent, with an additional 1 per cent per month for earlier payment, making 14 per cent discount for cash! A dry goods merchant in Porto Alegre complained to me of the facilities in the way

of credit obtainable by dealers from English shipping houses, and of the selling of a few pieces and broken assortments by travelers.

Alkali.—English soda ash holds its own in Porto Alegre; it is used more than caustic soda by the soap makers of the district, but in the south of the State caustic soda is preferred. I have never heard of this latter (i. e., caustic soda) being anything but English; on the other hand, the glassworks at Pelotas use German soda ash to the extent of 80 to 100 barrels per annum. I forward a sample of this German material * * * 95 per cent "Barilha," mark "Salvi." The woolen mill in Rio Grande also uses German soda ash.

Candles.—In stearin candles the Belgian make holds its own; but tallow candles, impossible in tropical Brazil, owing to the heat, are largely used here. These are of local manufacture, the chief factory being in Pelotas, where the candles are put up in boxes of 15 kilos each, price at present being 15\$000 to 16\$000 a box.

Cement.—This is all German or Belgian. One large Brazilian importer assured me that he had been obliged to give up the English cement, and now received German, which was not only cheaper, but had actually proved to be better.

Coal.—The native coal, coming from a place called São Geronimo, close to Porto Alegre, is a good deal used locally. * * * About 2 tons appear to be required to do the work of 1 ton of Cardiff coal, but the cost is only about 30\$000 per ton placed in Porto Alegre, as against several times that price asked recently for Cardiff. Coal similar to the São Geronimo is said to have been found in Bagé, on the Southern Brazilian Rio Grande do Sul Railway.

Cotton yarn.—In this district, as in Rio and São Paulo, cotton yarn is imported to only a comparatively trifling extent. The large cotton-weaving mill at Rio Grande imports its own yarn, which comes from a place near Genoa, I understand.

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

(a) *Piece goods, white or plain.*—Bleached goods are either English or national. Grays used to be largely of United States make ("Caboclo" favorite mark), but now come, for the most part, from Rio de Janeiro. Some grays are made at the extensive woolen and cotton mill in Rio Grande. I forward a sample * * * of flour bagging, 56 cm. wide, made there for the local mill; contract price, 310 reis per meter.

(b) *Printed, checked, or dyed.*—German dark-ground prints have a large sale in this State. One of the first questions a dealer puts, I am told, is to ask the price of "chitas azules," as a kind of barometer of the mark. I forward a few samples, to show what is meant, as follows:

* * * German dark-ground "H" prints, about 70 cm. wide, cost about 0.34 to 0.37 marks per meter, according to design, packed, placed in Hamburg, less 2 to 3 per cent; weight, 125 to 128 grams per meter; count 23 threads in a 5-millimeter glass; sold here at 1\$180 per meter.

* * * German dark-ground "G. H." prints, about 70 cm. wide, believed to be somewhat cheaper or better value than S. 13; weight, 120 to 122 grams per meter; sold at 1\$150 to 1\$180 per meter.

* * * German dark ground "Germania" prints, 69 to 70 cm. wide. I could not obtain particulars of these, but they were reported as sold at 1\$180 per meter.

In *woven colored goods*, national products supply a good share of the

demand here, as is also the case in Rio de Janeiro and São Paulo districts. I forward samples of goods made at the two factories at the port of Rio Grande, as follows:

* * * Cotton trouserings, national make, about 68 cm. wide. Prices: For 1 bale, 820 reis per meter; for 100 bales, 750 reis per meter, and for 200 bales, 700 reis per meter, less 10 per cent for cash (probably 13 per cent to up-country customers).

* * * Cotton trouserings, national make, width about 68 cm.; price, 820 reis per meter, less 13 per cent for cash (apparently the same goods as Z 48).

* * * Cotton trouserings, national make, width about 65 cm.; price, 1\$300 per meter, less 10 per cent for cash.

* * * Cotton trouserings ("Madrassino"), width, 65 to 66 cm.; price, 1\$250 per meter, less 10 per cent for cash.

* * * Cotton trouserings ("Pelotas"), width, 67 to 68 cm.; price 1\$250 per meter, less 10 per cent for cash.

(c) *Thread for sewing*.—With reference to my report from Rio de Janeiro, I learn in Porto Alegre that buyers there have not repeated their orders for the national thread, as they found it uneven.

(e) *Undershirts*.—German makes compete with native, or vice versa. There are very many varieties, and fashions constantly change. Undershirts with collar and long sleeves, and some embroidery in front (on button band), seem to be worn a good deal. The price of the local make of these came down some time since as low as 36\$000 per dozen. There is also a considerable sale for another shape, of which I forward a sample—

* * * A German undershirt, which cost for No. 3 size 9.50 marks, and for No. 4 size 10.50 marks per dozen at the factory. This shape is just beginning to be made by national factories.

As regards cotton goods in general, a large importer in Porto Alegre told me that from a third to a half of the total sales effected by dealers in that place were of national goods; that, further, this state of affairs was bad for the dealers, because national-factory prices became so well known that there was nothing to be made in retailing the goods. Of imported goods, he estimated that his firm's sales were half English, the other half being French, German, and (largely) Italian.

Hardware.—An importer (Portuguese) in Porto Alegre told me that he had seen samples of German cast-iron hollow ware. He was not surprised, he added, that the Germans should push this trade, since the English makers were keeping up far too large a margin (over £20 a ton) between ordinary pots and covers and enameled ones. In Pelotas a large Brazilian importer told me that German cast ware, both retinned and enameled, was coming to that market.

In bright chest hinges the German imitation of the American hinge is said to be both cheaper and better than the English chest hinge. I forward a sample * * * of this German hinge.

Stoves are almost all American; but tops of brick cooking ranges are made in Rio de Janeiro.

Implements and tools of industry.—English spades and hoes prevail generally, but a rough hoe is made from steel in the up-country. This latter is popular, and has recently been imitated in Germany. I forward a sample of the imitation. * * * This hoe is said to cost about 0.70 mark each, placed in Hamburg, or to sell here at about 1\$600 at an exchange of 6d. The hoe gives a light readily when struck with a flint. It should have no name on it.

Axes of United States make, or German imitations thereof, supply the whole market for these articles.

LEATHER.

(a) *Uncwrought*.—There are a number of tanneries in the State. Guava bark is largely used for tanning.

(b) *Boots and shoes*.—Nine-tenths of the demand is said to be supplied by the local makers. I visited one very successful factory in Porto Alegre.

(c) *Saddlery and harness* are made locally. One important tannery, I understand, makes harness on a large scale, and sells all over the State; another has the Government contract for saddles.

Jute manufactures.—A little canvas is imported from England, and occasionally hessians; but the factory of the latter at Rio Grande practically supplies the local demand for the material of which sacks for beans are made. It turns out, I understand, about 200 bales of 10 pieces each per month, each piece containing 100 meters, as against the 200 meters of the imported hessians.

MACHINERY.

(a) *Steam engines*.—There used to be a fairly large demand some years ago for engines for sawmills, but this has quite fallen off, so that importers of both German and English engines seem to have considerable stocks. Second-hand engines are also on sale. There are several well-mounted foundry and engineer shops in Porto Alegre. The manager (German) of one which I visited said people preferred buying from him, because they could have any little variation made to their taste, and could apply to him if anything went wrong or was unsatisfactory, with better effect than to a mere importer.

Locomotives, with the exception of the English engines on the little railway from Porto Alegre to the German colonies, are said to be mostly American, as also is the bulk of the railway rolling stock. The Government Porto Alegre-Uruguayana line was so stocked before it was taken over by the Belgian company which now leases it, and the formerly Belgian line from Rio Grande to Bagé was similarly stocked before it was transferred to the English company which at present controls it.

(b) *Of other sorts*.—Except for plows, I am assured that there is comparatively little demand for agricultural machinery, the existence of the European colonies notwithstanding. There is one large German engineering and shipbuilding establishment at Porto Alegre, which also has an electrical department. This latter is in charge of an expert, who is prepared, I am told, to quote for an installation without referring to Europe.

METALS.

(a) *IRON (b, c, and f)*.—The trade in all rough iron, namely, *pig, bar, rod, plates etc.*, is in the hands of about five German import houses in Porto Alegre, four of which have combined for this special business. They estimate their total sales before the combination at, I understand, 1,000 tons per annum, and working separately each required to have full assortments and to hold stocks equivalent to something like two years' supply. The lock-up and risk of this system naturally involved high prices; whereas by means of the combination they expect to work with stock equal to one year's supply and to be able to lower prices and increase the amount of sales. The iron is all German. With regard to the wrought iron, especially that in plates, dealers consider the German better than the English product, as it is more malleable and does not

crack when bent. I may here mention an exception to what I have formerly said as to the greater facility experienced in getting orders executed on the Continent than in England. The manager of the foundry visited by me in Porto Alegre, which imports its own supplies of iron, told me that his firm had been compelled recently to order pig iron from England, because German masters were so full of orders that they required eight months for execution. He was well pleased with the quality of the iron received from England, but the freight on it was more expensive, owing to transshipment being necessary.

(e) *Wire*.—Fencing wire, an article of large use in this State, is now entirely German; the market has been lost by English makers within a quite recent date.

Wire sent from Germany is not only cheaper, but is much more evenly rolled. Barbed wire is not much used; the chief cattlemen in the State object to it.

(g) *Tinned plates*.—The usual annual consumption in Porto Alegre (apart from that of the English Beef Extract Company up the river), is estimated at not less than 24,000 cases. Of this total, one-third is used for various purposes, such as canning coffee (imported in bags), tobacco, etc., for up country, and for making various kinds of utensils, etc.; the remaining two-thirds is demanded for the manufacture of lard tins. At present, however, this latter industry is under a cloud. The local lard refiners have spoiled their own market in Rio de Janeiro by mixing too much water in their product; consequently there is a large stock of Rio Grande do Sul lard lying in Rio Janeiro unsalable, to the advantage of United States importers. At Pelotas and Rio Grande there is also some fruit-canning industry. The factory which I visited at the latter place is of considerable importance, and uses about 3,000 cases per annum.

(h) *Cast or wrought and all other iron manufactures*.—Castings of fairly large size are made in Porto Alegre. I saw some fancy columns for the front of a building which had been cast at the foundry I visited there, and these seemed to be of very creditable workmanship.

Porto Alegre has its own wire-nail factory, from which the district is supplied.

Oil, seed.—Linseed oil appears to be all English. One firm, which imports it pure, told me they were gradually procuring the trade against others who brought it in adulterated by as much as 50 per cent.

Painters' colors and materials.—Paints in powder, in which there is by far the largest trade, are almost all German; but a small trade in made-up paints, packed in tins, is for the most part English.

White lead still comes, as a rule, more or less adulterated, although freights and duties are the same on the adulterated and on the pure product.

Varnish is English, except for a comparatively inconsiderable import of German spirit-varnish.

Soap.—The large factory which I visited near Pelotas makes fancy soap on its own merits. I forward a sample—a cake of this soap. * * * It is packed in cardboard boxes containing 3, 4, or 6 cakes, according to order. Price 1\$000 per kilo.

Woolen and worsted yarn.—The woolen mill in Porto Alegre imports from Germany about 100,000 kilos of yarn per annum, mostly worsted. A small quantity is obtained from England; but the manager complained bitterly of the habitual carelessness with which the English yarn is packed. He showed me some bobbins of black yarn found in a case of two-colored yarn; also a bobbin without any yarn on it, besides a quantity of dirty, greasy paper.

WOOLEN AND WORSTED MANUFACTURES (a and b).—Woolen and worsted and mixed tissues.—There is a certain amount of business in cheap light-weight goods, 250 to 300 grams per meter, 140 cm. wide (mostly in plain colors of English make, but also in some German fancies), as well as in tailors' goods, such as those referred to under the heading of São Paulo. The two local mills, one in Porto Alegre and one in Rio Grande, compete with imports to a fair extent, and also make for the northern Brazilian markets. I forward samples of their manufactures as follow:

* * * National cloth, 140 cm. wide; price, 7\$000 per meter, less 13 per cent for cash.

* * * National cloth, 140 cm. wide; price, 6\$000 per meter, less 13 per cent for cash.

* * * National cloth (mixed), 140 cm. wide; price, 4\$000 per meter, less 13 per cent for cash.

* * * National cloth (1700g, 1701s), 140 cm. wide; price, 9\$000 to 10\$000 per meter; weight, 250 to 300 grams. —

* * * National cloth (1669e, 1672d, 1659c), 140 cm. wide; price, 10\$000 to 11\$000 per meter; weight, 250 to 300 grams.

* * * National cloth (1664a, 1746g, 1655a, 1667c, 1738a, 1735e, 1733a), 140 cm. wide; price, 11\$000 to 12\$000 per meter; weight, 250 to 300 grams (except No. 1664a and 1746g, which are 300 to 400).

* * * National cloth (1720a, 1670a, 1656c, 1770b, 1726a, 1722g), width, 140 cm.; price, 14\$000 to 15\$000 per meter; weight, 300 to 400 grams.

As regards freights, Rio Grande do Sul markets are much in favor of German shippers, who have two lines of specially-built steamers running from Hamburg. English goods, on the other hand, have to be transhipped, either at Hamburg to these steamers or at Rio de Janeiro to national coasting steamers.

Even for shipments from England, I understand, the less expeditious German route is cheaper, although through rates of freight are the same as under the through bill of lading of the English line via Rio de Janeiro. The German route is especially preferred in the case of rough goods. These latter are allowed to be dispatched by the custom-house officials on board ship, and the German steamer will wait while this is done and while the goods are put direct into the Porto Alegre lighters. But goods under the English bill of lading arrive in a coasting steamer often full of passengers going farther on, are bundled out at once in any weather into the first lighters available, and incur custom-house store rent, transshipment, and additional lighter freight. Indeed, these extra expenses suffice in many cases to make a business which would be profitable by the one route result in a loss by the other.

With respect to national industries in the Rio Grande do Sul State, I am referring to these in a special memorandum, which will follow this report and be accompanied by the few samples (referred to above) which in so short a visit I have been able to collect.

A perusal of the foregoing report will, I think, reveal that the reasons for our loss of ground in various lines of trade are very similar to those set forth in my former report on Brazil.

So far as concerns general causes, I do not think I can add anything to what I have already written and to what this letter contains. A suggestion, however, I may be permitted to make, in the form of a plea

for a more widespread acquaintance with the languages of these countries, not merely among English travelers (who usually know them already), but among invoice clerks and shippers generally. Why should a German invoice clerk be able to read a South American tariff and to make out an invoice in Spanish or Portuguese any more than an English one? His brains are no better.

In closing this letter I desire to express my sincere thanks to the several Government officials, bankers, merchants, railway managers, manufacturers, and others who have so kindly and courteously aided me in my work.

I am, etc.,

THOS. WORTHINGTON,
Commissioner.

MEMORANDUM RESPECTING THE NATIONAL INDUSTRIES IN THE
STATE OF RIO GRANDE DO SUL.

Probably the largest of the national industries in this State are the *xarqueadas*, or jerked beef establishments, from which are sent out jerked beef, salted hides, tallow, refined tallow, neatsfoot oil, bone ash, etc., but there is very little in the way of manufactured materials or European products used in them. I visited one of the largest in Pelotas, which last year killed 22,000 head of cattle, or nearly 10 per cent of the total killed at that place (the principal one for this trade), but, beyond a certain amount of trolley lines, iron tanks, boilers, steam pipes, etc., there was nothing in the way of machinery. The jerked beef, which is put up in 60-kilo bales for shipment to Brazil, is packed in bessians made in the port of Rio Grande do Sul, but sewn with Dundee twine. The salt mostly comes from Cadiz. The tendency of this industry is to move farther inland toward the ranches, and thus deal with the cattle in better condition than after a long journey. There are already two *xarqueadas* at Bagé, the terminus of the Southern Brazil Rio Grande do Sul Railway. It is estimated, with regard to the hides, that two-thirds are exported and one-third sold fresh to the tanneries, which also use a large quantity of dry hides, bought up and down the country. The total number of cattle killed in Pelotas last year (1898) was 214,000, and there will probably have been 100,000 or so more by the *xarqueadas* in the rest of the State; some years ago, before the local revolution, the figures were nearly double.

There are at least two *cotton mills*, besides one or more hosiery factories. I visited one of the two first named, which is situated on the railway at the port of Rio Grande do Sul. This, although a Brazilian company, is practically an Italian concern, which has its own spinning mill in Italy, near Genoa, whence come its supplies of yarn (all colored). The machinery is all Italian, including a 145-horse-power engine, four boilers, and an electric-light dynamo (Edison's system). The electric light is the arc light, and is not considered a success; it is about to be replaced by the incandescent light. There are 200 looms, all wide, that is, for making 130-centimeter goods, although some narrow goods are made, the whole of these looms being in one long room in four rows. The product is entirely good-class trousseings (imitation cashmeres), etc. There are about 300 operatives, all Italians brought out under contract, the weavers being paid by the piece. Some narrow goods are made, and I noticed two pieces of narrow goods—with two different patterns, but with the weft the same in both—being woven

together on the same loom. The average weight of the goods produced is 340 grams per meter, or 170 grams for narrow goods. English coal is used at this mill, the furnaces not being suited to the soft native coal.

The other mill of the two referred to is a large woolen and cotton mill, also at the port of Rio Grande do Sul, not far from the factory just described. This mill, referred to below under the heading of "Woolen mills," has 200 looms for cotton, and, I understand, only makes coarse colored goods and grays.

I visited the principal *hosiery* factory in the State, which is at Porto Alegre. The machinery in this is mostly German, including a small German steam engine of about 6 horsepower. About 600 kilos of yarn are consumed daily, the gray being imported from England and the dyed from Germany, whence it is considered to come cheaper. Yarn spun at the National mills is not used, because of the difficulty experienced in getting a given quality kept up constantly. The quantity of undershirts made at present in this factory (which has only recently been restarted after a serious fire) is trifling, and the principal products are socks and stockings, of which altogether about 300 dozen pairs are made daily. This represents some 60 different makes and sizes, including some all woven, that is, without any sewing whatever. These latter are made on machines worked by hand. There are about 110 operatives, mostly Europeans or of European blood. This factory claims to be able to compete with the imported article, and ships its wares all over the Republic. Firewood, mixed with native coal, is used for the engine.

Woolen mills.—The Rio Grande mill referred to above has, I understand, 120 looms for wool, and 3 steam engines (that is, for the whole factory, wool and cotton together) of a combined power amounting to about 560 horsepower. The machinery is said to be mostly English. Only native wool is used, and the manager told me he did not use bleaching powder, but made his own soap for washing the wool, using English caustic soda for making the soap, also some soda ash which came from Germany. This factory (wool and cotton together) employs 900 to 1,000 operatives. Besides cloths, ponchos, blankets, etc., it also makes shapes for wool hats, which are finished at the Pelotas factory referred to below.

I visited the other important woolen mill of the State, which is at Porto Alegre. In this there are 7 spinning frames (3 of which are English) of 360 spindles each, and 75 looms, including about 13 hand looms (Jacquard), and about 14 other Jacquard looms. The machinery is mostly German, and there is a Belgian engine of 220 horsepower and Belgian boilers. This factory uses nothing but wool, its annual consumption being about 200,000 kilos of native greasy wool, equivalent, roughly, to 100,000 kilos of yarn (the loss in weight on greasy wool varying from about 60 per cent to 65 per cent on the finer grades to 38 per cent on the coarser), and about 100,000 kilos of imported yarn, mostly worsted, from Germany. Its chief products are cashmeres up to 450 grams weight per meter (140 cm. wide), military cloth, fancy blankets (cheapest about 15\$000 for size 2 meters by 1.85 meters), common blankets down to 3\$000 each, and ponchos. Alizarin dyes are used, but in the imported yarn the fancy colors are imported dyed. The water supply is from the river by a subterranean passage under the high road which separates the extensive grounds on which the factory stands from the river frontage. At the time of my visit there were only about 130 operatives employed, owing to a shortage of yarn and quiet business, but sometimes the number is as high as 250, mostly of European blood.

The weavers at the hand looms, working ponchos, can make, if they stick very seriously to their work, three ponchos a day, and are paid at the rate of 3\$000 per poncho. There is no artificial light. Firewood and native coal mixed are used for the engine.

At Pelotas there is an important *hat factory* which I visited. The machinery in this is English, German, and American. There is a 30-horsepower Belgian engine, with German boilers, and only native coal is used. The output is about 600 hats daily, 90 per cent of which are made from hair. The machinery for making these appeared good, but that for making wool hats is not complete, and, as mentioned above, the shapes are made at the woollen mill at Rio Grande. The hair used is mostly English and German rabbit hair. Only 3 or 4 per cent of hard hats are made, partly owing to the want of special machinery for this work. Prices of the felt hats vary from 54\$000 per dozen to 14\$000 each. They are mostly made to order, but apparently all go out as national manufacture.

At Rio Grande do Sul there is a *Hessian mill*, with 90 looms, which makes, as mentioned in my report (p. 139), 200 bales of 10 pieces, each bale containing 1,000 meters, per month.

Of *foundries and iron works* there are several comparatively important establishments, one of which I visited—not quite the largest—the largest being the one referred to in my report (p. 139) under the heading of “Machinery.” I also visited the principal one in Rio Grande. As will be gathered from my report, the whole consumption of iron of these places is not at present a very great matter. The establishment which I visited in Porto Alegre uses annually about 150 tons, and the one in Rio Grande very much less, but small steam engines can be made at both these places. At the Porto Alegre works, when not very busy, they employ their hands in making small engines of from 3 to 4 horsepower. Last year they built a small iron steamer, which was said to have proved a success. The machinery in this place is mostly German. Native coal and firewood mixed are used, and about 35 operatives are employed.

The *making of tin cans* for the canning industries (lard, fruit, etc.) does not appear to be done on any extensive scale as a separate business, although the tin-can users, instead of making their own cans, frequently employ outside tinsmiths, supplying them with the tin plates to do their work.

The fruit, etc., canning factory, referred to in my report (p. 140) under the heading of “Metals—Tin plates,” is fitted for the most part with German machinery, and an English 8-horsepower engine was about to be replaced by a German 16-horsepower one. The manager considered the German machines for making the cans were the best, as a rule, for the work, especially the one for clamping on the tops. When I visited this factory the fruit season had not commenced, and the work in hand was canning fried fish. The fish was cleaned and fried on the premises, which have river frontage. Pork and meat are also canned at this establishment. These products and the fish all go to the northern States of Brazil. The total output of the factory is from 800,000 to 1,000,000 cans annually of all kinds, the largest part being used for fruit, chiefly peaches and pears. As previously mentioned, the consumption of tin plates is stated to be about 3,000 cases per annum. The wooden packing cases are made on the premises from native wood. About 140 operatives were employed when I was there, but the number is larger in the fruit season.

For further reference to tin-can making, see below, under the heading of “Biscuit factory.”

There are two *glass factories* at Porto Alegre and one at Pelotas. Of the former only one is working. This one I visited, and, although it is on but a small scale at present, it is carefully managed and in strong hands. It has extensive grounds and river frontage across the high road. At present there is but one furnace, which has four pans. The product is varied, but only amounts at present to from £3,000 to £4,000 worth per annum. The management (these works are under English control) is working to achieve a good name (which it has got, I understand, for lamp chimneys) for a limited number of articles of everyday use. When I visited the factory I saw lamp chimneys, fruit or flower stands, and soda-water bottles, with ball stoppers, being made. The sand used, which is white and said to be of excellent quality, is brought by lighters from the shore of the lake (Lagoa Dos Patos). The soda ash, of which about 200 barrels per annum are used, is English. The saltpeter, of which about 3 tons per annum are used, is German, and the lime is native. For the best glass about $\frac{1}{2}$ kilo of potash is put in a pan of 250 to 300 kilos. Wood is used for fuel, as native coal will not do, and Cardiff coal is too expensive. About 40 operatives are employed at present, almost all of European blood. There is a small English steam engine. The duty on glass is said not to afford adequate protection to the industry, but on articles of large size there is always the additional protection—at least as regards local use—in the shape of the high cost of freight and the risk of breakage in bringing specially bulky glass vessels from Europe.

The factory at Pelotas was not working, owing, I was told, to some difficulty in settling a fire claim with one of the national companies; but it also is in strong hands and will doubtless go on again. Its annual production was stated to me by one of the management at £6,000 to £7,000 worth, and its annual consumption of imported material, all from Germany, as follows: Eighty to 100 barrels of soda ash, mark "Salvi," 95 per cent; 10 to 15 tons of manganese; 3 to 3½ tons of saltpeter, and 3 to 3½ tons of antimony. Samples of the first-named material I have forwarded. (See p. 137 of my report, under head of "Alkali.")

Soap and tallow candles.—The factory at Pelotas, referred to in my report, occupies large grounds on the Pelotas River, an affluent of the Gonçalves, which is navigable for barges. It is capable of turning out annually 500,000 kilos of common soap, which is sold at prices varying from 200 to 500 reis per kilo, according to the quality, whilst of fancy soap, the price of which varies from 1\$000 to 2\$000 per kilo, it could produce much more than the market could take. Of tallow candles the daily output is stated at about 60 boxes of 15 kilos each. These are, however, only some of the products of this establishment. There is a complete installation of Dutch butter machinery. The supply of milk from the neighborhood is good, and the factory turns out the butter in tins, made and lithographed (direct on the tin) on its own premises. There is also an installation of Dutch margarin machinery, in which the milk left (after making the butter) is utilized along with the meat-fat products for manufacturing the margarin. Glue is made from nerves and sinews bought from the *xarqueadas*, to the extent of about 10,000 kilos per annum. It is packed in 100-kilo wooden boxes, made on the premises, and sold at 1\$500 to 3\$000 per kilo, according to quality. Finally, neats-foot oil is extracted from shin bones. The only English machinery apparently in these works consists of three steam engines, each used for a different purpose; even the sawmill and the saws are German. English caustic soda is, however, used, as well as a little English soda ash.

The *boot and shoe factory* referred to in my report, under the heading of "Leather," contains German, American, and English machinery, including in the latter a small English steam engine, for which wood is used as fuel. There is also an English gas engine, but owing to the high cost of gas in the town (Porto Alegre) its use has had to be abandoned. Only the sole leather and enameled cow hide are of national make, the other leathers being mostly French, with some English. Elastic cloth (elastic side boots being largely used) is brought from England, being considered of better value, although higher in price, than Continental makes. The linen thread is French, English not having been tried. The product is about 400 pairs daily and is all sold in the State of Rio Grande. About 140 operatives are employed on the premises, and a quantity of work is given outside. * * *

I visited a newly established *biscuit factory* at Rio Grande do Sul, the proprietorship of which is much the same as that of the canning factory above referred to. It had only been started about six or seven months, and was not working at the time of my visit. Its product is apparently very fair, but the management have not succeeded, as far as I could learn, in finding a steady market for it so far. This factory contains a 15-horsepower engine, two large traveling ovens, with cooling rooms, and its own tin-making machinery, mostly German. When in full work about 106 operatives are employed. In the tin-making department I was informed that 12 operatives, part women and part boys, made between them 2,000 boxes per day.

The following other industries may be mentioned:

Brewing.—There are several important breweries in the principal ports, besides smaller ones up country, all of them worked on the German plan. The hops and malt both come from Germany, and attempts, made under favorable conditions, to introduce the former into Porto Alegre from England have proved futile. When barley is cheap in the country, some of the brewers make their own malt. The custom of selling beer retail from the cask is, I understand, increasing, to the detriment of the bottle trade.

Flour milling.—There is a successful mill at the port of Rio Grande do Sul under English management, and with all English machinery, which works continuously, and turns out 1,000 quarter sacks (about 22 kilos each) daily. * * *

Matchmaking.—There is an important factory on the railway from Porto Alegre to Novo Hamburgo, referred to in the Consular Report for 1897, page 9.

MONTEVIDEO, *January 5, 1899.*

APPENDIX I.

[Extract from the Brazilian Review of November 8, 1898. See page 126.]

DETAILS OF THE TENDERS FOR THE SUPPLY OF 120,000 TONS OF COAL TO THE CENTRAL RAILWAY.

Eleven different tenders were presented in the following order:

No. 1. Toms Creek Coal and Coke Company, of Pulaski, Va., United States, offering to supply part or whole of the steam coal required within the term to be agreed upon, free of duty or unloading charges, as per 3,000 tons received as sample at the Ilha das Moças, per S. S. *Mohican*, which the company places at the disposal of the Central Railway for making the necessary trials. This company proposes to deliver the coal in the harbor by steamer or sailer at the price of 25s. 10d. per ton, with the option of delivering same at the railway wharf of the Maritime station for an additional charge of 28000 per ton. The railway will agree to effect the custom-house dispatch immediately after the arrival of the shipment. Payment to be made according to clause 7 of the call for tenders or in a draft at 30 days for the price of the coal

wanted; the value of freight will be paid directly by the railway. If the discharge of the steamers or sailers be effected by the company, the value of same will be paid at sight, discharge from lighters at the railway wharf being done by the railway.

No. 2. The Brazilian Coal Company, Limited, Cory Brothers, Limited, offer treble screened Merthyr coal of the "Pentre, Gelli, and Tynybedw" mines, in accordance with the conditions of clause 1 of the call for tenders, at the price of 32s. per ton of 1,015 kilos, delivered on shore or in wagons of the railway, when provided. The coal to be treble screened before and during shipment; that is, twice in the mines and once on shipment.

No. 3. Visconde Rodrigues d'Oliveira proposes to furnish Cardiff steam coal of best quality at the price of 29s. 9d. per English ton, all the coal being delivered alongside of vessels. If the administration of the Central State Railway should require, the delivery will be made at the Gamboa Railway wharf against payment of expenses and in accordance with the conditions stipulated in Clause IV.

No. 4. The Tredegar Iron and Coal Company, Limited, London, represented by their attorney, Mr. Hamilton Walter, offer Tredegar steam coal, the same as is furnished to the railways of Great Britain, freshly drawn and treble screened, once at the opening of the mine and twice at the time of shipment. Ashes not to exceed 5 per cent; the coal not to contain over 0.9 per cent of sulphur, and its heating power not to be inferior to 7,900-calories measured by the Thompson calorimeter. The coal will be delivered at the vessel in large lumps, up to 12 per cent of the volume being admitted to be less than 30 cubic inches without the right of claim. The price will be 29s. 10½d. per ton of 1,015 kilos, exclusive of custom-house duties, unloading, or any other expenses. The delivery will be made alongside the vessel at the rate of 10,000 tons per month. Forty contos to be deposited on signature of the contract.

No. 5. The Empresa Industrial Brasileira, represented by their attorney, Mr. Candido Caetano Ferraz, offer Cardiff steam coal at 29s. 9d. per ton of 1,015 kilos.

No. 6. Norton Megaw & Co., Limited. The coal they offer is that known as New River coal, run of mine, unscreened, in the same condition as extracted from the mine, of which 50 tons have been delivered to the Central Railway of Brazil for the necessary trial. The coal not to produce over 4 per cent of ashes, nine-tenths per cent of sulphur, and its heating power not to be less than 8,100 calories per gram measured by the Thompson calorimeter. The delivery will be made at the option of the bidders, either by sailer or steamer, at 27s. 11d. per ton of 1,015 kilos alongside the vessel, or at the railway wharf when the vessels can get alongside, or put in lighters at the rate of 10,000 tons per month, each working day not to exceed 1250, extra-day days being reckoned at the rate of 25s. per hour for steamers and 14d. per ton register per day for sailers.

No. 7. John Sunley & Co., established in London, represented by their attorneys, Messrs. Wilson's Sons & Co., Limited, offer to deliver from the first fortnight of January, 1899, at the rate of 10,000 per month, the last shipment to be in December of the same year. This coal will be "Cardiff steam," the same as furnished to the British navy, and the price 31s. 9d. per ton, which will include cost, freight, and insurance. Payment to be made in drafts on London against delivery of documents for the cost of coal, and also, if required, one-third of the freight in advance, the latter being subject to a discount of £3 per cent deducted from the freight. The delivery will be made alongside the steamer, and never less than 250 tons per working day. As guarantee, 40 contos will be deposited on signature of the contract.

No. 8. João Cordeiro de Graça offers coal at 28s. 9d. alongside the vessel.

No. 9. John Carew & Co. offer steam coal from Virginia, United States mines, alongside the vessel in the port of Rio de Janeiro, at 28s. 6d. per ton, with an additional expense of 1\$500 per ton for delivery at the railway wharf, and for delivery in wagons or in heaps on the wharf, 1\$500 per ton more.

No. 10. Marianno de Madeiros will deliver steam coal from the Cardiff mines alongside the vessel against payment of 29s. 6d. per ton of 1,015 kilos, agreeing to make delivery at the Gamboa railway wharf on payment of 1\$800 more per ton, in addition to 29s. 6d. of the cost of coal delivered alongside the vessel.

No. 11. Messrs. Lage Irmãos made three offers—one of steam coal from the "Powell Duffryn" mines, or other of that quality, delivered on wagons at the time of unloading for the price of 33s. per ton; another of "Crown Patent Fuel" for the price of 32s. per ton, and the third of 50,000 tons of steam coal from the "Peachontas" mines, in the United States of America, for the price of 29s. per ton, exception being taken to Clause III of the call for tenders in regard to this coal, which, though treble screened at the mines, will always arrive with *small*, without prejudice, however, to its good quality.

At 1.30 p. m. on October 31, in agreement with the terms of the notice, the above tenders were opened in the presence of Dr. Passos, the general manager of the railway, duly read, numbered, and the minutes of the meeting written out and signed

¹ So in original. Query, not to be less than 250?

by the aforesaid authority, the coal inspector and the secretary, in presence of all the representatives of the different proposals.

In the course of a few days the results will be published.

Coal tenders for the Central Railway.—There is likely to be some delay before the acceptance of any of these tenders is decided, as the railway authorities propose to make thorough tests of the different American coals offered.

APPENDIX II.

[Copy of an advertisement in the Brazilian Review. See page 126.]

The Toms Creek Coal and Coke Company, Pulaski, Va., U. S. A.

[Analyses and remarks by H. J. Williams, chemical engineer and coal chemist, 161 Tremont street, Boston.]

<i>Proximate analysis.</i>		<i>Ultimate analysis.</i>	
Water	0.06	Moisture	0.06
Volatile matter.....	34.98	Carbon	81.40
Fixed carbon.....	61.31	Hydrogen	5.68
Ash.....	3.11	Nitrogen	1.00
		Oxygen	7.70
	100.00	Ash.....	3.11
Total sulphur57	Vol. sulphur.....	.51

These figures indicate a theoretical calorific power obtained by calculation of 14,697 British thermal units per pound of coal. Direct determinations of the calorific power were then made in the Lewis-Thompson calorimeter. These showed 13,873 British thermal units per pound of coal. These last results prove that if the combustion of the coal is completely realized, the coal is capable of evaporating 14,364 pounds of water from and at 212° F. In actual use under boilers the actual efficiency of the coal, with careful firing, would be in the neighborhood of 70 per cent of the above evaporation.

The percentage of ash is remarkably low.

In the recent competition for the supply of 120,000 tons of coal to the Central of Brazil (State) Railway, this company's tender was the lowest.

APPENDIX III.

[Price list of the Brazilian hosiery factory referred to at page 127.]

Preços Correntes Fabrica de Meias Franco Brasileira.

[Deposito: Rua da Alfandega, 55; Caixa no Correio, 422.—Fabrica: Rua Club Athletico, No. 15 e 17.]

LÉON SIMON & CIA.

	No.	Generos.	Preço por dúzia.	No.	Generos.	Preço por dúzia.	
		<i>Camisas.</i>			<i>Meias Para Homen.</i>		
Vendas a prazo de 90 dias.	108	Cruas	12\$000	213	Cruas	4\$000	Desconto de 12 por cento ao anno.
	408 dito	14\$500	2401 dito	4\$600	
	508 dito	16\$000	1121	Riscado	4\$800	
	608 dito	17\$500	1122 dito	5\$400	
	808 dito	20\$500	1123 dito	5\$700	
	520	Eucouraçadas	21\$000	2008 dito	5\$800	
	602	Alvejadas	21\$500	2609 dito	5\$800	
	603 dito	18\$000	212	Cor liza	5\$800	
	540	Com bolso	26\$000	2603	Preta	6\$200	
	1808 dito	21\$500	2501	Mescladas	5\$800	
	560 dito	22\$000	2613	Estampada	6\$500	
	550 dito	20\$000		<i>Para senhoras.</i>		
	1618 dito	18\$500	2140	Riscadas	6\$700	
	605	Cor liza	21\$000	2144 dito	7\$500	
	604	Pretas	24\$000	2123 dito	7\$800	
	516	Riscadas	16\$500	2011	Cor liza	7\$800	
	615 dito	16\$000	2500	Mescladas	7\$800	
	1615 dito	17\$500	2402	Cruas	6\$500	
	509 dito	19\$000	2611	Alvejada	7\$200	
	1616 dito	18\$500	2610	Preta	8\$000	
	500 dito	21\$000	2612	Estampada	8\$500	
	502 dito	28\$000				

SIXTH REPORT.

URUGUAY.

MONTEVIDEO, *February 7, 1899.*

The SECRETARY OF THE BOARD OF TRADE.

SIR: I arrived here from Brazil on December 22. This city, the capital of Uruguay, is the only port of entry of any importance in the Republic. It is said to contain nearly 200,000 inhabitants, while the population of the whole country is probably about 800,000 (official estimate, 840,000). In proportion to its size, however, the trade of this Republic is larger than that of its neighbors, and in realized wealth per head it is undoubtedly richer than they. The amount of hoarded gold here must be very large. A leading banker estimates the cash in the local banks on December 31 last at \$11,500,000 to \$12,000,000 in gold coin, and it is conceded that a very large proportion of wealthy people—people always holding substantial cash reserves—keep these, or the greater part of them, in their safes, so much so that the bank balances represent only a percentage, which I have heard put as low as 10, of the total available. It is worthy of remark, too, that, whenever the Government has attempted to force a paper issue, the banks have been sufficiently strong (property owners and the whole mercantile community being absolutely united against forced issues) to prevent it.

The Government statistics of foreign trade appear, on the whole, to be well kept, although on a system which does not allow of tabulation by countries as the figures are entered. This work of tabulation is only commenced after the figures for the year are complete, and the details from the outlying custom-houses on the coast and frontier are received. The volume for 1897, which I forward together with the volumes for 1895 and 1896, was published this month. From these and previous volumes I have extracted the following comparative tables of imports for ten years. It must be borne in mind, however, in considering the particulars contained in these tables, that in the official trade statistics of Uruguay imports are classified according to the countries from which they have been received—that is, in which the port of shipment is situated.

Values of imports.

[In millions of dollars.]

Countries from which received.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom.....	\$9.5	\$10.47	\$9.0	\$5.4	\$5.6	\$6.4	\$8.0	\$8.0	\$7.0	\$4.8
Germany.....	3.0	3.4	3.0	1.8	2.1	2.1	2.6	3.0	3.0	2.0
France.....	4.5	5.5	5.0	2.4	2.2	2.0	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.0
Italy.....	2.4	3.3	2.6	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.1	2.1	2.2	1.6
Spain.....	2.2	2.6	2.1	2.0	1.8	1.8	2.0	2.0	2.0	2.0
Belgium.....	1.6	1.6	1.4	.7	.8	1.1	1.3	1.3	1.7	1.0
United States.....	1.6	3.4	2.4	.9	1.1	1.1	1.7	2.0	2.0	1.5
Argentine Republic.....	.76	1.4	2.6	1.5	1.1	1.2	1.4	2.2	3.5	3.0
Brazil.....	2.6	2.5	2.4	1.6	1.3	1.6	2.0	2.2	1.4	1.6
Other countries.....	1.2	2.6	1.8	.7	.3	.3	.4	.3	.3	.2
Total.....	29.36	36.77	32.3	19.0	18.3	19.6	23.8	25.4	25.5	19.7

Percentage proportion of the total value of imports in each year received from each country.

Countries from which received.	1888.	1889.	1890.	1891.	1892.	1893.	1894.	1895.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>	<i>Per ct.</i>
United Kingdom.....	32.32	28.44	27.17	28.85	30.68	32.55	33.70	31.08	28.51	24.82
Germany.....	10.32	9.32	8.67	9.72	11.36	10.91	11.35	11.69	10.77	9.37
France.....	15.37	14.98	15.74	13.05	12.28	9.98	10.63	9.88	9.75	10.04
Italy.....	8.14	8.86	8.12	10.31	10.98	10.14	8.82	8.58	8.95	8.70
Spain.....	7.49	7.10	6.71	9.63	9.64	9.38	8.07	8.00	7.68	8.08
Belgium.....	5.41	4.42	4.59	3.85	4.54	5.51	5.40	5.39	6.70	5.76
United States.....	5.37	9.28	7.55	4.89	6.01	5.63	7.09	6.93	6.96	7.72
Argentine Republic.....	2.58	3.93	8.16	8.31	5.83	6.08	5.76	8.83	13.80	15.12
Brazil.....	8.96	6.80	7.64	8.88	7.13	8.13	8.17	8.74	5.66	8.31
Other countries.....	4.04	6.89	5.65	2.51	1.55	1.74	1.61	1.38	1.22	1.50
Total.....	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100	100

The values stated are based on official valuations, which, except in a very few cases, have not been altered for a number of years. At present these valuations, in the case of dry goods, are very roughly estimated, one with another at 30 to 40 per cent, and in the case of hardware at 25 to 40 per cent above the cost in bond. If we take the means of the percentages for the last three years and compare them with those of the previous three years we have the following results:

Countries from which imported.	Mean of the percentages for the three years.	
	1892 to 1894.	1895 to 1897.
United Kingdom.....	32.31	28.14
Germany.....	11.21	10.61
France.....	10.75	9.73
Italy.....	9.98	8.74
Spain.....	9.08	8.11
Belgium.....	5.15	5.95
United States.....	6.24	7.20
Argentine Republic.....	5.89	12.58
Brazil.....	7.81	7.57
Other countries.....	1.63	1.37
Total.....	100	100

It is evident from this that the United Kingdom is in the van (taking the figures proportionately) of those countries which show a falling off. Italy comes next, but then imports from that country are largely food stuffs, etc.—about half the total in 1897. One of the most remarkable features brought out by these tables is the increase in imports from the Argentine Republic, which seems to imply that goods intended for either market (i. e., either the Argentine or the Uruguayan) are sent to Buenos Ayres rather than here (where they used to come long ago), notwithstanding the year's free storage they can have in this custom-house. The smallness of the total imports in 1897 is attributed to the political disturbances of that year.

A large amount of the import business in this country would seem to be done direct by storekeepers with houses in Europe. Doubtless the greatest amount of this business—it is impossible to estimate how much—is done on the account current plan, as the largest and best houses demur to accepting drafts. There is, however, a certain amount of business which is done by draft. From figures kindly afforded me by the leading banks of their collections against European and American goods, I estimate that the imports drawn against as above must have amounted to £400,000 last year. Few of the regular importing

houses adhere to a wholesale business, and the British houses, formerly the great majority, are now comparatively few. The smallness of the market tends to the aggregation of different trades into single businesses; e. g., hardware is frequently combined not only with paints but with glass and earthenware.

The custom-house is said to be well administered. Moreover, the methods are simple and the facilities for the prompt dispatch of goods are excellent, which circumstances favor importation by other than regular importers. The tariff * * * has two "adiciones" to be added to the percentages named therein, one of 5 per cent and the other of 2½ per cent. A radical revision of this tariff is in contemplation, but the work will probably require some time yet to complete.

National industries, such as would compete with imports from Europe, are not of great importance, owing to the market being a limited one; still, certain articles, such as candles, common soap, boots and shoes, matches, brushes and brooms, and beer, are mostly made in the country.

The usual terms of credit are six months from the end of the month in which the goods are sold, discount for cash being 6 per cent in the dry-goods trade, and 5 per cent in the hardware and lumber, etc., trades. The great majority of European drafts against shipments are drawn at ninety days' sight, but there are also a good many at six months' date.

In the following report, in which the classification called for by your letter of December 21, 1896, * * * is adopted as far as possible, it is to be noted that, when not otherwise stated—

Prices are wholesale and terms of credit as just stated;

Duties are taken from the tariff now in force, with the "adiciones" of 5 per cent and 2½ per cent included.

Exchange may be taken at 4s. 3¼d. per peso.

ALKALI.

Soap makers here seem to prefer caustic soda to soda ash. The figures of imports for three years, in tons of 1,000 kilos, are as follows:

Imports.	1895.	1896.	1897.
Soda ash	460	493	328
Caustic soda	824	437	487

The figures here given for soda ash are those which appear in the statistics under the head of "Soda común," which includes soda crystals, but, as regards 1897 at least, there seems reason to doubt their accuracy, as will appear lower down. It is, perhaps, worth noting that the undermentioned quantities of "Soda común" were imported from Germany, France, and Italy respectively in 1896 and 1897.

Country.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>
Germany	150	5,195
France	None.	32,660
Italy	9,920	16,500

Caustic soda, however, all comes from England, except a small quantity received from the Argentine, which is also doubtless of British manufacture.

Soda crystals are imported from England for washing clothes. A

leading importer told me that in 1897 he received about 64 tons, and he estimates his import at about one-fourth the total, or say 256 tons, which would leave only 72 tons out of the 328 tons of "Soda común" stated in the statistics as the quantity of soda ash imported in that year.

Sulphate of copper forms but a small import. The following figures, in tons of 1,000 kilos, show who are the competitors:

Countries from which imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	115	91	55
Germany	13	40	15
United States	10	33	23
France	Nil.	8	Nil.
Italy	Trade.	Nil.	13
Sundries, including Argentine transshipments	1	3	Nil.
Total	139	175	106

Bicarbonate of soda (English and a little German) is also imported to only a small extent, and is not separately distinguished in the statistics. The figures given below as to the production of mineral waters will afford the best idea of the amount of the import.

Only a trifling business is done in *chloride of lime*: 1,740 kilos were imported in 1897, 1,080 kilos from England and 660 from France. It is mostly, I understand, for the use of the paper mill.

Common soap is made in the country, less than 50 tons a year being imported. There are four important factories, and these are also makers of stearin candles. One of them which I visited (*see under "Soap"*) turns out about 75 tons of soap a month, and the owner told me the competition was so keen (the price being as low as \$5 per 100 kilos) that he was trying to bring about a combination of the factories.

There is one paper factory (intended to be moved to the new port of Sauce) which produces wrapping paper, but another is projected of a more advanced type.

Glass making has not been a success hitherto (*see further on under "Glass"*).

Mineral and aerated waters.—There is a considerable manufacture of soda water and lemonade, etc., but none of the factories are on a large scale apparently. One of them which I visited, and whose machinery was all English, turned out in the year 1896–97 nearly 13,000 dozen, and in 1897–98 nearly 10,000 dozen. Of these quantities about 12 per cent are ordinary soda bottles, the remainder being siphons, many of them large siphons, equal to two and one-half bottles. The owner estimated his production at one-tenth of the whole, which would give an annual total, supposing there were nothing but ordinary bottles, of 100,000 to 130,000 dozen. The figures of imports, given under the heading of "Soda and mineral waters," are as follows, in thousands of dozens:

Countries from which imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
France	8.5	7.5	6.9
United Kingdom	2.4	1.8	1.1
Belgium	2.3	1.7	1.1
Spain	2.2	1.9	1.3
Italy	1.4	1.5	1.0
Germany	1.4	1.4	2.0
Various1	.2	.5
Total	18.3	16.0	13.9

ARMS AND AMMUNITION.

(a) *Firearms (small).*—Shotguns are chiefly Belgian, with a few English, the latter representing the better class. Revolvers are of United States make, with German imitations. Double-barreled pistols, it is said, are now little used.

(b) *Gunpowder* is British, except blasting powder, which is made in the country. Dynamite, a small import, now comes in great part from the United States.

(c) *Of all other kinds.*—Shot is made in the country. Empty cartridge cases come from Belgium, but recently English makers have been induced to send a quality suitable to compete. Ball cartridges, loaded, come from the United States, England, and Belgium.

The Government supplies its requirements from Europe; Mauser rifles are used, but it is possible that agents here, with diplomatic influence to help them, may work a change, though not in favor of either English or German makers.

Bags, empty.—The duty on ordinary hessians is 10 per cent on an official valuation, and ready-made bags are protected by a duty of 48 per cent on the valuation fixed for the material of which they are made increased by 20 per cent; consequently, bags are made here from imported materials—viz, from hessians—for jerked beef, wheat, and flour for the provinces, and from osnaburgs for export flour. Still, there is a certain amount of hessian bags imported, 105, 25, and 22 tons of these having arrived in 1895, 1896, and 1897, respectively, almost all from England. See also “Jute manufactures,” under “Linen and jute.”

Beer and ale.—There are four national breweries which, I am informed, have combined and arranged for one to work alone. The quantities imported in 1895, 1896, and 1897 have been 31,000, 29,000, and 25,000 liters, respectively, and of these quantities about half has been British.

Biscuit and bread.—Sweet biscuits are imported chiefly from the United Kingdom, which country supplied 74 tons (of 1,000 kilos) out of the total of 81 tons imported in 1895, 71 tons out of 77 tons in 1896, and 52 tons out of 57 tons in 1897.

There are, however, several national factories, which supply the bulk of the demand for all kinds of biscuits. One of these, which I visited, could, with five hands, turn out 100 tins (of 10 kilos each) of plain mixed biscuits in a day of ten hours. The establishment had capacity for doing a great deal more and was well supplied with machinery of various types, but the proprietor complained bitterly of the competition, which obliged him to shut down for a couple of months at a time. The price of the biscuits just referred to was 10 cents a kilo, under an agreement arrived at with other makers, but this agreement, he said, would no longer hold, as another factory was about to start. The tins were made on the premises, and four ordinary cases of tin plates were used to make 100 tins of 10 kilos capacity. The product of this factory is all sold under its own name.

Candles of all sorts.—Stearine and composite appear to be most used, but the import is small, viz, 95, 99, and 72 tons (of 1,000 kilos) for 1895, 1896, and 1897, respectively, chiefly from Belgium and Germany, whereas the annual output of one local factory (out of four principal ones), which I visited, is some 200 tons of the two kinds.

I will refer to this factory again under the heading of “Soap.”

Caoutchouc, manufactures of, and asbestos.—India-rubber sheets come chiefly from England, but Italy is now competing. Of tubes, the num-

ber of kilos imported from the United Kingdom, Germany, Belgium, and Italy for three years are:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>
United Kingdom	2, 077	1, 643	1, 216
Germany	1, 340	1, 565	383
Belgium	525	150	180
Italy	165	1, 353	928

I forward the following samples of German manufacture, viz:

* * * A piece of German wire-lined india-rubber hose, which cost at factory—

	per kilo..	France.
1-inch		3. 45
1½-inch	do....	4. 25
1¾-inch	do....	5. 00
1¾-inch	do....	6. 40
2-inch	do....	9. 15
2½-inch	do....	11. 65
3-inch	do....	17. 30

less 40 per cent discount.

* * * A piece of German wire-protected garden hose, which cost at factory for—

	per kilo..	France.
¾-inch		1. 25
1-inch	do....	1. 60
1¼-inch	do....	1. 81
1½-inch	do....	2. 41

I also send samples of Italian manufacture as follows, viz:

* * * A piece of Italian india-rubber sheeting, ¾ inch thick, without insertion, which cost 4s. 9d. per kilo, f. o. b. Genoa.

* * * A piece of Italian "tuck's" packing, which cost 6s. 8d. per kilo, f. o. b. Genoa.

* * * A piece of Italian asbestos millboard in sheets, assorted in ¾, 1, 1½, 2, and 3 inch thickness, which cost 1s. 10d. per kilo, f. o. b. Genoa.

* * * A piece of Italian asbestos plaited packing, assorted, ½ to 1½ inch sizes, which cost 5s. 1d. per kilo, f. o. b. Genoa.

Carriages and wagons, railway.—The railways in the country, with the exception of a small local line out of Montevideo, are British, and the carriages and wagons are, as a rule, either imported from England or made by the railway companies on the spot. United States prices run the English ones pretty closely, I am told, and some wagons may soon be brought from that country.

Cement.—English cement is admitted to be the best, and such as is indispensable for hydraulic work, but the largest import is of continental cement. A large importer told me he sold one barrel of English at \$2.80 per barrel (of 120 kilos gross) to 10 barrels of continental at \$2.10. The latter was good enough for building purposes, mixing with plaster, etc., and he did not see why English manufacturers should not make a special quality to compete, though he had not been able to persuade them to do so. The following figures show the imports here from the principal countries, viz (in tons of 1,000 kilos):

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom.....	1,415	1,359	1,694
Germany.....	1,949	821	724
Belgium.....	1,320	1,980	900
France.....	1,182	978	1,343
Sundries, including Argentine.....	476	328	207
Total.....	6,292	5,466	4,868

Coal.—The supply is almost all British. A little comes from the United States, but this coal has not found favor with general consumers. The figures of imports for three years are, in tons of 1,000 kilos:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom.....	107,920	95,311	67,459
United States.....	4,265	2,996	3,757
Sundries, including Argentine transshipments.....	2,666	5,276	2,228
Total.....	114,851	103,583	73,444

Cordage and twine.—For marine uses, manila and sisal cordage comes principally from the United States, the rope thence being considered better twisted and finished than other makes; in fact, a large importer told me it had been admitted to him in England by manufacturers there that they had not the machinery for giving the same finish. Russian comes from England, and holds for marine work against Italian, but for towing lighters, etc., in the bay, one of the chief marine uses for rope here, coir yarn rope is preferred, owing to its lightness. This used all to come from England, but latterly Belgium has been supplying it cheaper. I forward a sample * * * of this Belgian coir yarn rope. A recent invoice of 130 coils, each about 60 fathoms, gives cost at £19 per ton English f. o. b. Antwerp, assorted, as follows: $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, $1\frac{1}{2}$, 2, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ inch, 20 rolls each; $2\frac{1}{2}$, $2\frac{1}{2}$, and 3 inch, 10 rolls each, with freight 22s. 6d., less $7\frac{1}{2}$ per cent, plus 10 per cent. * * * The extreme sizes of this rope received are $1\frac{1}{2}$ and 10 inches.

For general agricultural work Italian cordage is chiefly used. Reaping twine, which is subject to specially low duty, now comes principally from the United States. Seaming twine (see "Bags," ante) used to be all British, but owing to its price having advanced so much in England, Italian is taking its place, at all events for sewing up the mouths of the bags. I forward a sample * * * of this Italian (Milan) seaming twine, of the most current size (No. 8 Italian), which cost 2 francs per kilo, packed f. o. b. Genoa. Ordinary packing string for shops is mostly Italian.

Chemical products and dyestuffs.—Acids come chiefly from the Continent, owing, apparently, to the greater facility for obtaining cheap freights thence on this class of product than from England. The figures, in thousands of kilos, are:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
Germany.....	89.7	100.3	44.6
United Kingdom.....	13.3	9.2	15.7
France.....	6.2	31.9	17.5
Belgium.....	7.6	9.7	3
Argentine Republic.....	7.6	5.1	.3
Sundries.....	Nil.	.7	.1
Total.....	124.4	156.9	81.2

Sulphuric acid forms the bulk of the above imports, but nitric and muriatic acids have, I understand, for some time past been imported in greater quantities than formerly, owing to their use, mixed with 4 parts of water, having come into vogue for sprinkling plaster on the outside walls of houses (houses are generally built of brick and plaster), a process which imparts to the plaster a weather-resisting surface and obviates the need of painting.

Gelatin, used for stiffening the juice in packing ox tongues, is largely of German manufacture. German makers put it up as required in half-ounce tablets, one of which just suffices for a tin. English makers, I am told, will not make it up in these small tablets, nor make the cheap quality required.

Cotton yarn.—Cotton yarn is not imported, as there is no cotton-weaving industry yet in the country.

COTTON MANUFACTURES.

(a) *PIECE GOODS: White or plain.*—In white goods there is no serious competition with British manufactures. The United States and Italy have tried to compete, but hitherto not successfully, except perhaps to a very trifling extent. In grays, however, the American drills are much preferred to the British. I forward samples of the former, as follows, viz:

* * * American gray drills, "285," 30 inches wide. Thirty pieces of 40 yards each, in a bale, weighed 149 kilos; price in the United States, 4½ cents per yard; now lower.

* * * American gray drills, "AAA," 30 inches wide. Thirty pieces of 40 yards each, in a bale, weighed 179 kilos; price in the United States, 4 cents per yard; now lower.

Importers of these drills do not understand why Manchester can not compete. It is true there must be no filling, but great strength is not a necessity provided the goods have the weight and are soft and full to handle.

Gray domestics are also beginning to come from the United States.

Printed cottons, excepting, so far as I can gather, quite a small amount of Austrian and Italian dark grounds and some spasmodic importations from the United States, are almost all British. Moleskins, nevertheless, appear to come mostly from Germany. I forward a sample * * * of these German moleskins, 67 to 68 cm. wide, sold here at 28 cents per meter. A piece of 39.30 meters weighed 12½ kilos. The price named above would net about 7d. per meter to remit. These goods are, however, said to be feeling the competition of Italian woven goods.

Wove-colored goods.—In ginghams, Oxfords, etc., and, in fact, in checks and stripes generally, Italian goods appear to be by far the most important competitors of the British. I forward a sample * * * of Italian ginghams, 68½ cm. wide, which cost 0.38 lira per meter, packed and placed in Genoa. Prices now are rather lower; 30 pieces in a bale contained 1,601 meters, and weighed 221 kilos net.

I also send a sample * * * of Italian plaids, 70 cm. wide, which cost 0.34 lira per meter, packed and placed in Genoa.

And another * * * of Italian flannellet, 70 cm. wide, which cost 0.46 lira per meter, packed and placed in Genoa.

Even in better class trouserings, that is, those made in imitation of cashmere, in which the competition used to be all from Germany, Italy is now coming to the front, and being imitated by England and Germany. I forward samples as follows, viz:

* * * German cotton trouserings, 64 to 65 cm. wide, sold here at about 24 cents per meter; weight, 189 grams per meter.

* * * German cotton trouserings, 64 to 65 cm. wide, sold here at about 26 cents per meter; weight, 220 grams per meter.

* * * German cotton trouserings, 64 to 65 cm. wide, sold here at about 27 cents per meter; weight, 243 grams per meter.

The customs duty on the foregoing three cloths is at the rate of 38½ per cent on a valuation of 90 cents per kilo.

I also send sample * * * of Italian trouserings, 128 cm. wide, which cost 1.03 liras per meter, packed and placed in Genoa; 747½ meters weigh 277 kilos, or, say, about 370 grams per meter. In single width these goods cost 0.53 lira per meter. For the ready-made clothing trade (the tariff almost excludes ready-made clothing from abroad) these goods are preferred in double width, 130 cm.; weight, about 400 grams per meter.

I should add that sober colors and designs in trouserings and coatings appear rather to prevail, but that neither in these articles, nor in any other fancy cloths, must the samples sent be taken as necessarily indicating what would prove suitable for new shipments, and especially is this remark to be borne in mind with regard to patterns; recommendations in so diversified a trade can only be the work of specialists constantly employed watching the market and fashions.

United States denims have a considerable sale. I forward samples of these, as follows, viz:

* * * American "XXX" denims, about 28 inches wide, assorted 12 blue and 18 coffee colored; 1,466 yards weighed 235 kilos. Price in the United States, 7½ cents per yard.

* * * American "Otis" denims, about 28 inches wide, assorted 12 blue and 18 coffee colored; 1,610 yards weighed 425 kilos. Price in the United States, 9½ cents per yard.

* * * American "3 Medallion" denims, about 28 inches wide, assorted 12 blue and 18 coffee colored; 1,519 yards weighed 310 kilos. Price in the United States, 8 cents per yard.

* * * American "Sago River" denims, about 28 inches wide, assorted 12 blue and 18 coffee colored; 1,528 yards weighed 255 kilos. Price in the United States, 7 cents per yard.

* * * American "Polar Bear" denims, about 28 inches wide, assorted 12 blue and 18 coffee colored; 1,492 yards weighed 275 kilos. Price in the United States, 8½ cents per yard.

The denims, as above, are all packed 30 pieces in a bale, each piece measuring, as will be observed, from about 48 to about 54 yards. The latest prices are quoted a quarter of a cent or so below those given.

In *dyed goods* there is a large sale of black—chiefly continental makes. I forward samples, as follows, viz:

* * * Italian diagonals, 65 to 66 cm. wide, cost 0.74 lira per meter, packed and placed in Genoa.

* * * Swiss black cotton cloth, 70 cm. wide, sold here at 9 cents per meter. The duty used to be at the rate of 38½ per cent on a valuation of 90 cents per kilo, but now, owing to a dispute with the custom-house authorities, who recently wanted to classify it as cotton merino, at double the valuation named, duty is chargeable on the declared value.

* * * Swiss black cloth, 68½ cm. wide, sold here at 9½ cents per meter; weight about 64 grams per meter; duty as above.

Also—

* * * Italian dark blue diagonals, 65 cm. wide; costs 0.30 lira per meter, packed and placed in Genoa.

English velveteen cords are preferred by the ready-made clothiers to Italian, but the trade is quite a small one. In colored fustians,

another small trade, this preference is reversed, as the English cloth is said to spot when it is exposed to sea air. I forward a sample * * * of Italian colored fustians, 65 cm. wide, sold here at 40 cents per meter.

Piece goods (cotton), with the exception of cotton flannels, cotton canvas, imitation cashmeres, and a few minor items, which are either separately stated or included under other headings, are given in globo in the statistics of imports, the only distinction made being between those which are assessed for duty by weight and those assessed by measure, the latter being from a tenth to one-eighth of the whole. The total figures for the leading countries, expressed in thousands of dollars of official values, are as follows, viz:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	\$1, 918	\$1, 827	\$1, 156
Italy	202	247	178
Germany	183	159	95
Belgium	99	95	54
France	67	79	55
United States	48	43	36
Argentine (transshipments)	41	40	80
Sundries	4	4	1
Total	2, 562	2, 494	1, 655

(b) STOCKINGS AND SOCKS.—Germany furnishes more than half the total imports of these, as will be seen from the following table, showing the quantities imported from different countries in dozens of pairs:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
Germany	122, 659	113, 097	92, 719
United Kingdom	24, 743	24, 968	17, 181
Italy	19, 892	23, 110	16, 032
Belgium	15, 011	28, 516	15, 735
France	7, 436	13, 700	11, 309
Other countries	3, 277	3, 401	8, 086
Total	193, 018	206, 792	161, 062

It must not be supposed, however, that the imports supply the whole trade; a considerable business is done, thanks to the high duty on ready-made articles of clothing already referred to, in making stockings and socks here from imported material, which comes almost, if not entirely, from Italy, woven in tubes. I forward a sample * * * of Italian tissue, woven in form of a tube, as above, which cost 2.35 liras per kilo, less 9 per cent, packed and placed in Genoa.

It is curious to note that by the custom-house tariff common stockings are valued at 80 cents per dozen, while socks of the same character have to pay duty on \$1 per dozen. The tissue for making both these and undershirts pays, on declared value, from 40 to 50 cents per kilo, I understand.

(c) THREAD FOR SEWING.—Less than 3½ per cent of the spool thread imported in 1895, 1896, and 1897, was other than British. Ball thread is a comparatively small import, chiefly from Great Britain, although the proportion from other countries is much larger than in the case of spool thread.

(d) HOSIERY, ETC.—Undershirts are made in the country from imported material for the same reason as, but to a larger proportionate extent than, stockings and socks. The material also is almost all, if not entirely, Italian. I forward samples as follow, viz:

* * * Italian tissue, woven in form of a tube, for making under-

shirts, costing 3.80 liras to 4 liras per kilo, packed and placed in Genoa, less 9 per cent.

* * * Italian tissue, woven in form of a tube, for making undershirts, costing about 2.10 liras per kilo, packed and placed in Genoa, less 9 per cent.

The quantities imported during the last three years have been as follows, viz (in dozens):

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1870.	1897.
United Kingdom	4,652	4,740	2,611
Italy	7,849	5,473	3,501
France	5,030	8,041	5,589
Germany	4,503	4,424	2,726
Belgium	2,229	2,218	439
Sundries	1,703	1,010	1,263
Total	25,966	25,906	18,129

In cotton towels, Italian goods seem to be the favorites. I forward a sample * * * of one of these towels, 80 by 120 cm., 20 knots in the fringe, which cost 12 francs per dozen at the factory. With 7 knots (the most salable), 70 by 110 cm., the cost was 7 francs per dozen. There is a large sale, I understand, for this class of towel. The knots are counted diagonally and are either 1, 5, 7, 15, or 20 in number, and the sizes are from 80 to 150 cm. long, with width in proportion, say about two-thirds length. These towels are also made in linen and mixed linen and cotton. The fringe should not contract, as in the sample, but lie the full width of the towel.

For canvas, see under "Linen;" for wick, under "Soap;" and for shoe tape, under "Leather."

Earthen and china ware, including manufactures of clay.—British stoneware holds its own, and in common earthenware British makes can and do compete with those of Germany and Holland, although in common plates, bowls, and spittoons some say the Germans have the advantage. In imitation porcelain the custom-house tariff is against Great Britain, as it places so high a duty on a number of articles of this class, compared with that on the same articles of real porcelain, as to reduce the difference of cost between the two to a point where many buyers will take the French porcelain, who, were the difference greater, would prefer the British imitation. For example, covered spittoons, decorated, pay duty on a valuation of \$9 per dozen, if imitation porcelain, while the same things in real porcelain only pay on \$10 a dozen. The duty, it will be observed, is by the piece, not by weight here.

All kinds of earthenware and porcelain are classed together in the import statistics. The following are the figures as to the imports during the three years 1895, 1896, and 1897, in thousands of dollars of official values:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	71	79	38
Germany	28	31	15
France	12	12	14
Belgium	8	11	6
Sundries	1		1
Total	120	133	74

Furniture.—Austrian bent-wood furniture and American chairs, etc., appear to comprise all the imports of any importance.

GLASS.

(a) *Plate, rough, and silvered.*—Plate glass comes chiefly from Belgium, as will be seen from the following particulars as to imports:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Cases.</i>	<i>Cases.</i>	<i>Cases.</i>
Belgium.....	7,456	10,689	9,861
Germany.....	1,804	625	87
United Kingdom.....	243	506	191
Sundries, including Argentine transshipments.....	342	713	61
Total.....	9,845	12,533	10,200

As to looking glasses, these come principally from Belgium and Germany. The following are the figures as to the imports, in thousands of dollars of official values, the quantities not being given:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
Belgium.....	19.3	27.4	20.7
Germany.....	3.3	9.2	3.1
United Kingdom.....	1.6	2.6	.8
France.....	Nil.	1.1	.3
Sundries.....	Nil.	.7	.1
Total.....	24.2	41.0	25.0

(b) *Flint.*—In this description, also, Belgian and German goods supply the bulk of the demand. The figures of the imports, in official values of thousands of dollars, are:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
Germany.....	63	44	25
Belgium.....	51	58	30
United Kingdom.....	5	8	5
France.....	2	3	5
United States.....	3	3	2
Sundries.....	2	3	1
Total.....	126	119	68

Local factories have not been a success hitherto, I understand; one is still existent, and, although not working at present, the owner, whom I saw, evidently intends restarting, and is, meantime, agitating for increased protection. He imports sand from Germany, and uses crushed country quartz, also native sulphate of lime, which is found close to the factory. He imports soda solvæ from England, having tried German. Lamp chimneys have been his best product, and, next to them, large sample bottles, glass barrels, common decanters, etc., in fact, bulky articles generally which are hard to import. In common tumblers and glasses he can not at present compete with Belgian makes.

(c) *Common bottles.*—These come likewise from the Continent, although in certain kinds some change seems to be taking place. They could be made here without importing sand, as good enough sand for these exists locally.

HARDWARE AND CUTLERY.

Cast-iron hollow ware, in which retinned greatly predominates over enameled, is practically all British, but some came not very long since from Germany, and was sold out. The new English cast (pressed) steel retinned goods are liked, and for kitchen ware seem likely to replace the German wrought-iron enameled ware. The latter is a large trade. Retinned wrought-iron ware, a much smaller business, is chiefly French, I understand.

Door hinges.—Only the common rough door hinges are English; those chiefly used are French, suitable for double doors, and allowing of the doors being dismantled without disturbing the hinges. I forward samples, as follows:

* * * A pair of French door hinges, with knobs, 140 by 45 mm., to show kind and quality. The cost in an invoice of these hinges was—

	Francs.
160 by 50 millimeters	per dozen.. 1. 90
190 by 60 millimeters	do.... 2. 35
220 by 70 millimeters	do.... 2. 80
250 by 80 millimeters	do.... 3. 95
270 by 90 millimeters	do.... 5. 60

Less 5 per cent, packed f. o. b.

* * * Two pairs of French door hinges, without knobs, left, 160 by 50, right, 155 by 55. Cost of such hinges was—

	Francs.
140 by 50 millimeters	per dozen.. 4. 50
160 by 50 millimeters	do.... 5. 40
190 by 65 millimeters	do.... 6. 00
220 by 70 millimeters	do.... 7. 75
250 by 80 millimeters	do.... 8. 50

Less 70 per cent, packed f. o. b.

In door locks the French, I understand, have most hold on the market. I forward a sample * * * of a French door lock, 95 mm., Cost—

	Francs.
95 millimeters	per dozen.. 4. 00
110 millimeters	do.... 4. 20
120 millimeters	do.... 4. 75
150 millimeters	do.... 5. 50

Less 5 per cent, packed f. o. b.

Common padlocks are English, but the better class are French, which, I understand, are successfully imitated and sometimes improved upon in Germany. As an example of what Germany makes, I forward samples as follows, viz:

* * * A German padlock, 35 mm., with two keys, 7268. Cost—

	Marks.
35 millimeters	4. 60
45 millimeters	5. 20

Less 20 per cent.

* * * A German automatic padlock, 50 mm., with two keys, 478. Cost (net)—

	Francs.
40 millimeters	6. 10
45 millimeters	6. 25
50 millimeters	6. 75

One large importer called my attention to the difficulty of getting proper packing of small hardware, such as padlocks, etc., in England. The Americans pack in nice little cardboard boxes, which enables the

goods to be shown without damage or spoiling their appearance; paper and string are so difficult to replace. Another importer mentioned that English hardware travelers have their samples very badly arranged compared with the Germans, who, moreover, do no wrapping up in papers, but have their goods all (in cases) ready to show when opened. He also referred to the waste of time daily incurred in polishing and putting away samples which could be averted by the use of spirit varnish.

Of *cutlery* in general probably the largest import is German, of common quality; of better quality, British goods seem to hold in pocket cutlery, while in table cutlery they compete with French.

HATS OF ALL SORTS.

Felt hats are not manufactured in this country. Hard felt is not much used and the largest import of any kind of hat is of the soft wool hats. The figures of imports, given in thousands of dozens, are (men's and boys' hats):

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	5.7	5.3	2.7
France	4.5	6.0	2.6
Italy	6.1	5.9	4.4
Germany	3.7	3.5	1.0
Belgium	1.6	2.2	.9
Sundries, including Argentine	1.7	.6	.3
Total	23.3	23.5	11.9

A leading importer complained to me that the English wool hat, besides being too expensive, was not sufficiently regular as to quality, etc., the same make of hat often varying in width of brim and in finish. The best hat for the people, he considered, came from Austria. I forward a sample of this hat, viz:

* * * Which costs 20.50 liras per dozen at the factory, to which must be added for charges and freight (by way of Hamburg) about 23 per cent.

Straw hats are made largely, if not principally, in the country from imported braid, the best and lowest qualities of which are said to come from England, although originally proceeding from Switzerland, and the intermediate qualities from Italy. A certain quantity of hats, however, is imported, as will be seen from the following figures of imports, given in thousands of dozens (hats made from wood shavings, reeds, etc., are all included in these Government figures):

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	2.0	2.3	1.1
France	1.0	1.8	.8
Italy	2.0	.8	.5
Germany4	Trifle.	Trifle.
Belgium4	.5	.3
Sundries, including Argentine3
Total	5.8	5.7	2.6

IMPLEMENTS AND TOOLS OF INDUSTRY.

Spades and shovels are chiefly English. A light United States shovel is finding favor. I forward a sample of this * * * American

No. 3, mark "XXX," which cost \$2.40 per dozen, boxed f. o. b. Five dozens of these come packed in a box.

French *scythes* appear to be the favorites, as are also United States *hatchets* and United States *stocks and dies*.

Saws are largely English. Endless saws, however, and some circular saws are French. American handsaws are considered cheap and suitable. I forward a sample of the latter * * * which cost in United States, for sizes 18 to 30 inches assorted, \$3 per dozen.

Carpenters' tools, such as gimlets, plane blades, chisels, gouges, etc., come largely from Great Britain, but there is also a large sale of common German makes for the retail trade. One importer called my attention to the inferiority of the English catalogues. He pointed out one issued by the house he considered the best makers, which was not only all in English, but had no alphabetical index, nor reference numbers to the articles in the majority of cases, so that when ordering he not only had to know the English name of the article he wanted, but to search through the index, which is not in alphabetical order, for it, and then (and this is what he found delayed him most) copy out the English name, instead of being able just to write off the Spanish name and give the reference number.

Brushes and brooms of almost all kinds, except the finer quality paint brushes, are made in the country, and the native industry has, I understand, nearly killed the importation of other descriptions than those named.

LEATHER.

(a) *Uncrout*.—Sole leather and a certain but increasing amount of enameled leather are produced in the country, the "quebracho" wood being used, as in the Argentine, for the tanning. Kid is all imported (mostly from France), as also is a good deal of sheepskin (from England), calf leather and patent leather (chiefly from Germany and Belgium), and lesser quantities of other kinds. Sheepskins prepared with the wool on come from England, and are extensively used in riding, either alone or with a saddle. An enterprising Italian and some others are now, however, at work buying the green "Lincoln's" in Buenos Ayres and preparing them here.

(b) *Wrought*.—Boots and shoes. The import of these is a comparatively trifling matter, about 1,200 dozen pairs of all kinds (£1,500 official value) in 1897, as the national workshops supply the market. I visited one of the leading factories, which employs about 300 hands, exclusive of outside work, and is equipped with modern machinery (French, English, and American), including a 35-horsepower Swiss steam engine and an English electric-light dynamo. Besides leather boots and shoes, this factory produces wooden-soled boots and shoes of all kinds, hand-made "alpargatas" (canvas shoes with sole of plaited jute yarn), saddlery, harness, leather and wooden trunks, etc.

I visited the leading factory of "alpargatas" just referred to. The machinery in this factory is all English (including a 60-horsepower engine) with the exception of the electric-light installation, which is German, and an American gasoline machine for singeing and soldering purposes, the factory being inconveniently distant from the gas main. The jute comes from Dundee. The factory has one carding machine and two spinning frames of 56 spindles each. The cloth and other material is also British, but some foreign-made canvas, said to be Spanish, was being tried. There are 106 operatives, almost all women,

and the outturn at present is 220 pairs per day, say 11 bales of 20 dozens each, the shoes being tied together in packets of one dozen pairs. The smaller factories import their jute yarn, and hand-makers buy the plaited yarn here.

Among the miscellaneous articles used in connection with the boot and shoe industry may be mentioned:

Elastic cloth.—Elastic side boots being the favorite kind. This comes largely from Belgium and Italy, increasingly from the latter country. I forward samples * * * of three qualities of Italian elastic cloth about 13 cm. wide, which cost—

	Francs.
No. 26.....per meter..	1.05
No. 34½.....do.....	1.45
No. 35.....do.....	1.85

net, at the factory in Milan. Pieces are of about 10 meters, and each piece is neatly tied up in paper.

Shoemakers' thread.—In this article Italy is apparently becoming the chief competitor of Great Britain. I forward a sample * * * in the shape of a ball of Italian shoemakers' thread, which cost 2 liras per kilo net, packed in Naples, where it is made. Thirty balls come packed in a flat cardboard box.

Cotton braid (being the shoe string for "alpargatas").—Italy competes again in this, as well as in tags for pulling on boots, and in ordinary cotton boot laces. One maker of "alpargatas" told me that after trying English, German, and Spanish markets he had found Italy the cheapest and best for this braid. I forward a sample * * * of Italian braids for tying "alpargatas," which cost 1.35 francs per 100 meters, packed and placed in Genoa, less 45 per cent discount. This braid comes packed in rolls of about 56½ meters, one dozen rolls being made up in a bundle, which weighs about 2 kilos.

(c) *Saddlery and harness.*—These form quite a trifling import, native factories supplying the market.

LINEN AND JUTE YARN.

There is no linen weaving in the country, but a certain amount of jute yarn is imported, as above mentioned, by the smaller "alpargata" makers.

LINEN AND JUTE MANUFACTURES.

1. **LINEN MANUFACTURES.** (a and b) *Plain and colored.*—The principal trade in pure linen goods is pretty evenly divided between Great Britain, Belgium, and Germany, but in mixed goods the second-named country has hitherto had the advantage. The following are the figures of the imports of pure linen goods in thousands of dollars of official value (the quantities, being given partly in meters and partly in kilos, are less serviceable for purposes of comparison):

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	36	41	24
Belgium	39	41	26
Germany	24	36	21
Sundries, including Argentine transshipments.....	10	12	16
Total	119	130	87

The corresponding figures for mixed linen and cotton goods are:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	4	5	7
Belgium	8	8	7
Germany	4	3	4
Sundries, including Argentine transshipments	2	4	1
Total	18	20	19

I understand that from 40,000 to 60,000 meters of linen drill are required annually for the army.

(c) *Sailcloth and sails*.—The principal imports of these are British. The United States comes next, with cotton canvas, other countries being a long way behind. Italian canvas competes among others and is said to find some favor for the use of barges in the bay, which, however, mostly use United States cotton. I forward a sample * * * of Italian No. 4 canvas, which cost 1 franc per meter, less 5 per cent, f. o. b. in Genoa, 12 pieces of 32 meters each in a bale.

I also forward a sample of Spanish (?) canvas, bought by the alpar-gata factory referred to above, under "Leather," * * * 28½ inches wide, which came, I understand, from Buenos Ayres, and was invoiced at 68d. per yard, English basis, i. e., adding freight and duty, etc.

(d) *Thread for sewing*.—See ante, under "Leather" (boots and shoes).

2. **JUTE MANUFACTURES**.—There are no other jute manufactures imported than those already dealt with under the headings of "Bags" and "Leather" (boots and shoes), except, indeed, wide jute canvas for scissor beds which comes from England.

MACHINERY.

(a) *Steam engines*.—Stationary engines, of anything but quite small size, have only an occasional sale. Gas engines are not liked, owing to the high cost of gas here. The United States "Baxter" engine, with vertical boiler, is a favorite for its convenience and for its economy in fuel. Small engines of from ¾ to 4 horsepower, less compact, and with no boiler (i. e., buyer has to arrange separately for a boiler if he does not already possess one), but said to be simpler than the "Baxter," are made locally. There are a few United States locomotives on the railways, but all the rest are British, and British are still procured in preference to others.

(b) *Of other sorts*.—As regards agricultural machinery, reapers and binders come mostly from the United States, but thrashers are chiefly British. Seven-eighths of the plows are American. I have seen a No. 36 "Eagle" plow, iron work all cast with chilled edge, complete and with spare share, which cost \$2.10 in United States. The whole amount of the imports of agricultural machinery and implements, however, is not a very great matter, say \$213,000 of official value in 1896, and \$123,000 in 1897, and of these amounts the United States supplied \$112,000 and \$52,000, respectively, and Great Britain \$47,000 and \$36,000.

Electric machinery and fittings appear to be chiefly German. The American has not got a footing yet, and, although a certain amount of business is done in English makes, these are generally more expensive than the German. A specialist, who does a good deal of installation work, told me that he could buy from German houses here, who brought out electric machinery and fittings for sale, on better terms than he could import from England, instancing alarm bells at about half the English price, and excellent telephones also cheaper than English.

A large importer of machinery complained of some English houses sending foreign machines under their own name. He said that, seeing in a Birmingham catalogue a certain drilling machine, which seemed similar to a very good and light French machine he knew, he ordered one. When it arrived he thought it looked like the French machine, and taking off the plate with the Birmingham name ("manufacturer") which was screwed on, he found the well-known French initials had been not too carefully filed out underneath. He had a similar experience in trying to obtain from England a special light jackscrew for use in stowing ships.

There are several good engineer shops and foundries here, mostly in English hands, their business being largely in connection with marine work. I visited two of these. In one of them there was a slip attached capable of hauling up over 1,200 tons weight. Two iron schooners, one steam launch, and two or three hard-wood lighters, one of 230 tons capacity, were in the yard undergoing repairs. In the other I saw engines of 200 horsepower being built for a steam tug, and in this establishment a new cupola was about to be erected of sufficient capacity for 5-ton castings. The machinery in these shops, as well as the iron used, is practically all British. Probably the principal single line of their business besides marine work is making the boilers and "digesters" for the various "saladeros" or jerked-beef establishments. The work of these establishments forms the principal national industry, and they produce besides jerked beef and hides, tallow, glue stock, neat's-foot oil, bone ash, etc. Flour milling and macaroni making is also a national industry. I visited one mill, with a capacity about equal to a 12-sack plant, where the machinery was English and American, with a partially German wheat-washing installation, and an Italian macaroni plant. I understand there is another mill of double this size and many smaller ones.

METALS.

1. IRON. (a) *Old, for remanufacture.*—Cast is worth from \$15 to \$17 per ton, and is all used locally. Wrought is worth from \$5 to \$7 per ton. There is no export duty on it, and there is no rolling mill in the country. The iron mostly goes to Genoa.

(b) *Pig.*—The import of pig iron is a trifling one; the figures are, in tons of 1,000 kilos:

Imports from—	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom.....	215	180	173
Belgium.....	Nil.	20	Nil.
Total.....	215	200	173

(c) *Bar, angle, bolt, and rod, including soft steel, and (f) hoops, sheets, and boiler plates.*—The figures of the imports of these, exclusive of hoop and galvanized iron, and building girders, are, in tons of 1,000 kilos:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom.....	2,569	3,136	1,735
Belgium.....	1,280	1,074	544
Germany.....	109	808	83
Argentine Republic.....	142	238	74
Sundries.....		7	6
Total.....	4,100	4,763	2,442

The imports of building girders in 1897 are stated at 2,018 tons, of which quantity Belgium contributed 1,897 tons.

The figures as to imports of hoop iron are, in tons of 1,000 kilos:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
United Kingdom	913	1,495	467
Belgium	220	91	82
Germany	17	Trifling	306
Argentine Republic	88	124	101
Brazil	5	10	5
Total	1,243	1,720	961

It is, perhaps, worth mentioning that one importer of hoop iron told me he was now obtaining it more cheaply from the United States than from other parts; others seem to consider the German competition the serious one, and I believe the reason is to be found partly in the German iron (mild steel) being susceptible of bending oftener without breaking than the hitherto all-iron English hoop.

Of galvanized and corrugated sheets, the great bulk comes from England, our share of the imports amounting to 2,915 tons in 1895, 2,184 in 1896, and 1,440 in 1897, out of totals of 3,704, 2,804, and 1,645 tons, respectively, and of the balances, Argentine transshipments account for 428, 466, and 138 tons, respectively.

(d) *Railroad of all sorts*.—Steel rails, 65 pounds per yard, for the railways, are English. For the tramways, the “Phoenix” rail, which is the one used, comes from Belgium. A quotation was recently asked for from England, but the reply was for Belgian rails and Antwerp shipment.

Railway wheels and axles come from England, and are of steel. The tramway companies, who appear to build all their own cars, have, I understand, brought the wheels and axles from Germany for several years, but owing to unsatisfactory experience they are now reverting to England, and some are trying the United States.

(e) *Wire*.—The figures of imports are, in tons of 1,000 kilos:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
Germany	5,009	3,706	2,460
United Kingdom	3,075	2,900	1,388
Belgium	688	1,856	787
Sundries, including Argentine transshipments	1,104	755	549
Total	9,876	9,217	5,184

If any reason be sought for preference shown to German wire, besides that of lower cost, it will, I think, be found in its being, at least formerly, generally better rolled, so that it reels out perfectly straight. This gave it, originally, a preference in the market, but its cost is still lower all round than that of the British.

Steel cables, which are mostly British, are not liked so much as coir yarn rope (above referred to), for bay work, as it is not so easily handled.

(g) *Tinned plates*.—The great bulk of these comes from England, the British imports having amounted to 622 tons in 1895, 636 in 1896, and 432 in 1897, out of totals of 720, 683, and 450 tons for the respective years. Of the balances, Argentina transshipments accounted for 41, 15, and 10 tons, respectively. One of the two large ox-tongue canning

companies, whose establishment here I visited, turns out annually about 9,000 cases of from 3 to 4 dozen tins each (each tin containing either a whole or half tongue), according to size of the tins, and uses some 400 to 600 cases per annum of double-sized plates. A certain amount of refined tallow is exported in tins (all that for Brazil has to be in bladders), also a little peanut oil, and there is a small amount of fruit canning. In addition there are all the various minor industries of making kitchen utensils, boxes, etc., but the largest single use of tin plates is probably for preserved meat, by the Liebig factory at Fraybentos.

(h) *Cast or wrought, and all other iron manufactures.*—In iron piping, both black and galvanized, United States competition is beginning to be strongly felt. Previous to 1897 iron pipes were combined with lead pipes in the import statistics. For the year named, out of 181 tons (of 1,000 kilos), 152 tons came from England and 21 from the United States, the remainder being transshipped from Argentina. The United States pipes have a metal protection covering the screw thread at the one end of the pipe on all except the quite small sizes. This is considered much superior to the English rope covering, which, by the way, is not always put on unless asked for.

Wire nails of all kinds form an import several times larger than that of all other kinds combined. It amounted in 1897 (nails were not separately specified in the statistics previously) to 305 tons, of which Germany supplied 73, Belgium 136, England 54, and France 32. There is a wire-nail factory here, but I understand it is not of any importance, having only machinery for making the nails from prepared wire, whereas the real margin in this industry is to be found in importing fencing wire, which comes in at a specially low duty and is allowed as small as No. 9, and then drawing it out to the sizes required in making the various kinds of nails, as is done in Buenos Ayres.

Engineers' bolts and nuts appear to be chiefly British, whereas coach makers' are largely Belgian and French. I forward a sample, * * * of a Belgian coach makers' bolt and nut, sold here at 16 to 17 cents per kilo, for assorted sizes from 2 inches to 6 inches. The similar English bolt would require 20 cents. It might be better, but that matters little to the user, who has done with it when he has fastened it in.

I hear that coach makers' bolts and nuts are now also coming from the United States.

Wood screws come largely from France. I forward samples * * * of four French wood screws, whose first cost was:

	France.
No. 21, length 27 (smallest of the four).....	per gross.. 0.72
No. 22, length 35 (next largest of the four).....	do.... 1.05
No. 23, length 45 (next largest of the four).....	do.... 1.18
No. 24, length 55 (largest of the four).....	do.... 2.10

less 56 per cent, 3 per cent, and 2 per cent discount, about fifteen months ago.

Cases containing 350 gross of these screws come for sale in the market, assorted as follows:

	France.
50 gross, No. 18, length 20	per gross.. 0.45
50 gross, No. 19, length 20	do.... .48
30 gross, length 25	do.... .54
20 gross, No. 20, length 20	do.... .54
20 gross, No. 21, length 25	do.... .68
60 gross, length 27	do.... .72
40 gross, length 30	do.... .80

	per gross	Francs.
15 gross, length 40	per gross	1.00
5 gross, length 45	do	1.10
10 gross, length 50	do	1.20
20 gross, No. 22, length 25	do	.80
15 gross, length 30	do	.95
5 gross, length 35	do	1.05
5 gross, length 40	do	1.15
5 gross, length 45	do	1.35

Discount, 56 per cent, 3 per cent, and 2 per cent.

American platform scales are principally used. Some of the points named as giving them a preference are the good finish, the lever for resting the scale off the knife edges, and the compact weights, which are easier to handle than the awkward-sized English ones. American counter scales are also favorites, and are cheap. A pair of scales, up to 125 kilos, only costs \$2 in the United States. The old even-balance scales have almost gone out of use. Steelyards are made largely in the country.

3. BRASS OF ALL SORTS. Steam valves, etc., seem to come lighter and cheaper from the United States than elsewhere, but are not so good for marine work over, say, 1½ inches. I forward a sample * * * of an American brass steam valve, which cost at the factory for the sizes most in demand as follows: ½-inch, \$1 each; ¾-inch, \$1.35 each, and 1 inch, \$1.80 each, less 80 per cent and 10 per cent.

Oilcloth.—About four-fifths of this appears to come from England, but German competition is felt. I forward a sample * * * of German oilcloth, which the importer considers of excellent quality, and better than English at the same price.

Seed oil.—The import of this oil, which is almost all from England, only supplies part of the demand, as the oil is produced locally from native linseed. I visited one of the oil mills, which had four English presses of about 400 tons each, a 12-horsepower engine, and a German filter. The manager reported that they had no difficulty in getting seed and could make far more oil than they could sell. They had shipped as much as 300 to 400 tons of oil cake in a year. Importers say the native oil was made very well at first to get the trade, then it gradually fell off in quality until the imports came freely again, and that now its quality is again improving. A recent sale of English oil was made at \$4.50 per drum, while the price of the native article is somewhere about \$3.60 per drum.

Painters' colors and materials.—Over 60 per cent of the paints which come to this market (the great bulk of which are in the form of paste, packed in drums) appears to be British, the remainder being divided between Italy, Belgium, France, and Germany. There is, I am informed, a large syndicate of paint manufacturers in Genoa who pack paints under any mark or ticket buyers require. Varnish was still (in 1897) more than half British.

Paper, other than hangings.—Printing paper, over 87 by 54 cm., comes in at a duty of 15½ per cent on a valuation of 14 cents per kilo, while writing paper and envelopes pay 38½ per cent on a valuation of 40 cents per kilo, so that the great bulk of paper, whether for printing or writing, is imported in large sheets which are cut up here for the latter

purpose. The figures of imports of printing paper (and cover paper for any purpose, provided it can pass as printing paper) are:

Countries whence imported.	1895.	1896.	1897.
	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>
Germany.....	545,000	671,000	555,000
Belgium.....	213,000	510,000	377,000
United Kingdom.....	170,000	207,000	113,000
France.....	44,000	24,000	28,000
Italy.....	6,000	40,000	72,000
United States.....	4,000	19,000	6,000
Argentine Republic.....	50,000	110,000	74,000
Total.....	1,032,000	1,581,000	1,263,000

Printing paper, properly so called, comes principally, if not exclusively, from the Continent. One of the largest importers of paper here spoke of the readiness of the German makers to meet their customers at all points—e. g., to make alterations in detail of finish or packing, not to stick to a hard-and-fast rule as to minimum quantities, etc.—and even in the matter of credit.

Paper for wrapping and packing of all kinds is the next most important division. In this trade, at least in common kinds, Italy has by far the largest share. A little is produced locally, as indicated above, under the heading of "Alkali."

The following is a list of samples of German and Belgian paper, marked A to L, which I forward. The prices, it will be observed, almost all include packing and are free on board ship, whereas British invoices are weighted with packing and shipping charges.

Mark.	Cost per 100 kilos.
A	50 francs, less 5 per cent, 5 per cent, and 2½ per cent, packed f. o. b.
B	50 francs, less 5 per cent, 5 per cent, and 2½ per cent, packed f. o. b.
C	48 marks, packed f. o. b.
D	38.50 francs, packed f. o. b.
E	27 francs, packed f. o. b.
F	24 marks, packed f. o. b.
G	24 marks, packed f. o. b.
H	43.50 marks, packed.
J	44 francs, packed f. o. b.
K	36 marks, packed f. o. b.
L	18 marks, f. o. b., packing extra.

Lithographed advertisements in one color pay a specific duty of \$2 per kilo; if in more than one color they pay \$3 per kilo, besides the "adiciones" of 7½ per cent on a valuation of 40 cents per kilo, or 80 cents if with a calendar.

Paper-cutting machines come from Germany. The chief importer told me they were lighter than English, and that makers sent an admirable explanatory catalogue in Spanish, which told much in favor of the sale of the machines.

Books, printed.—No copyright is respected here, at least none owned in Europe or America. There is, I am told, some mutual agreement among several of the South American republics, but beyond this the South American newspaper proprietors—and they naturally exercise great influence on the subject—would not, I am assured by a gentleman in the trade, favor a law to protect European copyright, as it would prevent their bringing out translations or copies of new works, in parts, in their newspapers, as they can at present.

Matches.—Only wax matches are used, and they are all made in the country. The consumption is estimated at 18,000 to 20,000 gross boxes (containing an average of 35 matches each) per month. The matches are almost all put up in cardboard boxes, but a factory has just been erected to work a patent for little tin boxes, which will enable the latter to be sold very cheaply. A similar factory is about to be erected in the Argentine, the machinery for which is mostly German, with some Italian, I understand.

Soap.—Fancy soap is largely French, but common soap is almost all made in the country. It may possibly be of interest to note that of the small importation of the latter article—namely, 45 tons in 1895, 38 tons in 1896, and 42 tons in 1897—about two-thirds came from Italy and Spain. The soap and candle factory, which I visited, and which has been already referred to under the heading of “Alkali,” is about 6 miles from the center of the city, with plenty of ground, but no railway or water communication. Except some English presses and four or five boiling pans, some of which are for direct heat only, and others heated partly by steam coils, the machinery is chiefly French. There are two large tubular boilers, three distillers, a small steam engine, and dynamo for the electric light. There is a brick chimney 41 meters high and an artesian well 160 meters deep. The total capital invested in the concern is stated at \$112,000.

The tallow is, of course, native. The sulphuric acid comes from France; the caustic soda, of which about 250 to 300 drums per annum are used, and the soda ash, about 50 barrels per annum, come from England. Talc for the soap is from the south of France, and the cotton wick, of which about 100 kilos are used monthly, is also from France. I forward a sample * * * of this French candle wick, which comes in two sizes, as per sample, and costs 2.90 francs per kilo at the factory. It is prepared so that when the candle is blown out it goes out altogether, leaving no part smoldering. Without this preparation the wick only costs 2.80 francs per kilo. Wood for the boxes, ready cut and tied in bundles with wire, comes in small cargoes from the United States.

The stearin candles, which are of several sizes—and some of which are hollow—are always put up in cardboard packets of four candles, 25 of such packets being packed in the wooden boxes. A certain proportion of these candles are packed under foreign names, which some buyers insist on having. The composite candles are packed direct, 500 in a wooden box. The production is from 18,000 to 20,000 boxes of stearine, and about one-third of that quantity (i. e., in number of candles) of composite candles. The glycerin, which is extracted prior to distillation of the tallow and sulphuric acid, is shipped to Europe in old petroleum tins. The soap is put up in boxes of 50 kilos each and about 70,000 kilos are made per month.

Only about 25 hands are employed in this factory.

Spirits.—Whisky is the only spirit brought in any quantity from England. The imports of British whisky amounted to 15,262 liters in 1895, 17,918 in 1896, and 15,676 in 1897, the total imports in the respective years having been 18,557, 20,567, and 17,230 liters. There is one large and several small distilleries which make rough spirit out of corn, for sale to wine rectifiers, liqueur makers, etc., and compete with one another keenly. I am told the large one could, if it would, satisfy the rest by a very moderate payment and easily raise prices 10 per cent, thereby assuring a handsome profit.

Sugar, refined.—Previous to 1896 the imports of refined sugar were not separated in the statistics from those of unrefined. The latter is allowed up to a high grade, I gather. The figures are noteworthy, viz:

Countries whence imported.	1896.		1897.	
	Refined.	Unrefined.	Refined.	Unrefined.
	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>
Germany	2,313,000	920,000	1,294,000	442,000
France	2,063,000	293,000	2,756,000	363,000
Italy	1,500,000	20,000	14,000	35,000
United Kingdom	121,000	1,637,000	103,000	2,228,000
Belgium	49,000	305,000	210,000	1,306,000
Argentine Republic	130,000	4,119,000	228,000	5,511,000
Sundries, including Brazil	44,000	560,000	14,000	321,000
Total	6,220,000	7,754,000	4,619,000	10,206,000

Since 1897, however, the local refinery appears to have settled steadily to work, and I observe that the imports shown by the partial custom-house returns for the first nine months of last year were at the rate of about 3,000 tons of refined and 12,000 tons of unrefined sugar for the year. I visited this refinery, which is situated a few miles out of the city, and on the railway. The machinery, including two large vacuum pans, a 60-horsepower engine and boilers, centrifugals, and electric-light installation, is all French. Attempts to work Brazilian sugar were not successful, and the raw material now used is 97 per cent beet-root sugar. The output, which is about half broken lump and half dust, is some 400 bags of 100 kilos each per day; a small amount of cubes is also produced. There are about 60 operatives employed. Sixty kilos of coal used to be required for every 100 kilos of sugar, but this has been reduced under present management to 32 kilos, and it is hoped to reduce the proportion a good deal further.

Umbrellas and parasols.—These form a comparatively small trade. Less than 2,000 dozen were imported in 1897. France and Italy appeared as the chief competitors of Great Britain, the first-named country sending umbrellas to this market as low as 23 francs per dozen, and the second at 17 lire per dozen. All are imported ready made; the custom-house tariff does not suit for importing frames and covers separately.

Woolen and worsted yarn.—The import of these, hitherto chiefly from Germany, has been small—3,600 kilos in 1895 to 4,600 kilos in 1897, which includes embroidery wool. A woollen mill is about to be established, and I inclose a newspaper cutting relative to the concession granted to the same.¹ It is intended, however, in this mill to spin native wool instead of importing yarn, and to weave ponchos, blankets, etc., principally. The machinery is all coming from Belgium, I understand.

Woolen and worsted manufactures—Woolen and worsted and mixed tissues.—The latter are favored by the tariff, for whereas pure woollen tissues pay 100½ per cent on a valuation of \$3 per kilo, the mixed goods only pay 38½ per cent on a valuation of \$1 per kilo, but the mixture must be simply that of a woollen warp with a cotton weft, or vice versa, as mixing in the yarn or any twisting of the wool and cotton yarn together is not recognized, and places the cloth in the category of pure wool. Moreover, this duty on mixtures is not much higher than that paid by cotton imitations, namely, 35½ per cent on a valuation of 90 cents per kilo, so that on this side also the mixed woollen and cotton

¹ See Appendix, page 175.

cloth is favored. Prior to 1897 the figures for pure wool cashmeres were not separated from those for mixed; for the year named they were in kilos—

Countries whence imported.	Pure.	Mixed.
	<i>Kilos.</i>	<i>Kilos.</i>
United Kingdom.....	72,122	106,009
Germany.....	13,766	5,866
France.....	13,768	2,621
Belgium.....	11,559	1,635
Italy.....	1,979	425
Sundries, including Argentine Republic.....	1,458	3,116
Total.....	114,647	119,672

From the foregoing it will be observed that Great Britain still holds the great bulk of this trade. That in pure wool is done chiefly by special importers and by a certain number of high-class tailors, weights being from 12 to 14 ounces principally, for summer, and 20 to 26 ounces for winter sale. Goods should all be double width (56 inches), except that (and it is a peculiarity of this market) patterns which are purely for trouserings are admissible of single width. The trade in mixed cloths is chiefly in the hands of the large wholesale clothiers. Italian mixtures seem to be coming more than formerly, and in the opinion of a leading clothier, an Italian, it is true, this competition is destined to become a very strong one. I forward samples, viz:

* * * Italian mixed cashmere, 131 cm. wide, weight 450 grams per meter, cost 3.70 lire per meter, packed in port.

* * * Italian mixed cashmere, 128-129 cm. wide, weight 350 grams per meter, cost 2.80 lire per meter, packed in port.

* * * Italian mixed cashmere, 140 cm. wide, cost 3.05 lire per meter, packed and placed in Genoa; 16 pieces of about 40 meters each in a case.

Referring now to some matters affecting trade, other than the question of ready adaptation to market requirements, already so frequently commented upon in these reports, I will deal first with—

Freights.—Undoubtedly the Italian manufacturer has a decided advantage in cheaper rates and faster steamers over his rivals of northern Europe; and not only the Italian manufacturer, for Genoa evidently is often the cheapest route for goods coming from beyond the borders of Italy. It is not only the shorter voyage which accounts for this, but the enormous steerage-passenger traffic and the marvelous numbers packed into one vessel. Rates, it is true, seem rather higher than they were, but payment is made on shipment, as in northern Europe, and it is very difficult to get at them here; by the same steamer I noticed oil in cases at 37.50 lire per cubic meter, and cotton goods from Zurich at 27.50 lire per cubic meter, no primage, or, say, equal to about 30s. and 22s., respectively, per 40 cubic feet, with 10 per cent primage. An instance was given me of a large French hardware manufacturer sending goods by Genoa, the sea freight being about half that by Havre or Antwerp.

As regards freights from northern continental ports, there seems to be an idea that, on rough goods at least, the rates are cheaper from them than from England. Iron hinges and bolts and nuts, at 25s. per 1,000 kilos, no primage, from Antwerp by an English line, were instanced to me against similar goods, say nails in kegs, about the same time (quite recently) from England at 30s. and 10 per cent primage,

which is the conference rate as per Tariff E of June, 1898, a tariff which, by the way, I much doubt if anyone here has ever seen.

Piracy of trade-marks, etc.—Injury has been done in the past to manufacturers in England and elsewhere by the admission of marks to the register upon the application of persons here other than the owners or their representatives, but on the 12th June, 1896, a decree was published * * * making all registration of marks provisional for three years, in order to give those who may find their interests prejudiced by the registration of any given mark time to appeal. The law of March 1, 1877, referred to in this decree, is the base of all legislation at present in force on this subject, I understand. * * * The decree is viewed as a hardship by some citizens, who say, "Why should a man who honestly applies for registration of a mark be liable for three years to have someone from abroad challenge it as already belonging to him? Let the foreigner register his mark!" A mark once properly registered can be protected, although the legal process will probably be long and expensive; falsification of a mark is criminal. * * *

The *metric system* of money, weights, and measures is the only one recognized in Uruguay (an English foot rule can not be legally imported), and it would be well indeed for our trade with this, as with the other South American countries I have visited, were its use obligatory in Great Britain. It is beyond the comprehension of people here why Great Britain, which is considered the first commercial country in the world, should not only refuse to adopt this simple and convenient system, used by almost all the other leading civilized nations of the world, and for that reason alone the most desirable for international commerce, but that she should adhere to an old cumbrous system so much more difficult to learn, and when learned, requiring so much more time and trouble to use.

If to the difficulty of British money, weights, and measures (a very real difficulty to the average South American importer) be added—at least in those trades where articles are manifold and values small, such, for example, as hardware—imperfect catalogues, often in English; the addition of packing and shipping charges so that any calculation based on quotations is very difficult to make, and the fact that invoices are often without sufficient detail and in English, there grows up such a combination of difficulties from the south American point of view as will, other things being equal, readily turn the scale in favor of other sellers. In the matter of catalogues, a merchant told me that so perfect was the catalogue of a certain French shipping house—a catalogue, by the way, said to have cost 36,000 francs eight years ago, and 40,000 francs more for the new and enlarged edition—that, although discounts are not as good as from manufacturers, it was worth while ordering from it, especially if in a hurry for small quantities, for the saving of time and trouble. One of the features of this catalogue was the use of marginal letters to signify the discount allowed on orders, which enabled it to be used in dealing with customers, the key to the marginal letters being sent in separate advice notes. Another matter bearing on the relations between merchants here and shippers in England, which has come under my notice again, is that of the difficulty frequently experienced in obtaining satisfaction from the latter in the case of reclamations. A merchant of the highest character and standing here mention to me as an instance a case in which he had ordered from English makers a safe of a certain thickness of plate, and could get no satisfaction whatever for one with thinner plate being sent, and he contrasted this with

the action of an American house, who sent him scales without having the weights bored to receive lead for the Government seal, but who, when notified of the omission, wrote apologizing, and asking him to send them the account for doing what was necessary.

* * * * *

My warmest thanks are hereby tendered to the Government officials, bankers, merchants, railway managers, manufacturers, and all others who have graciously afforded me information and assistance in my work.

I am, sir, your obedient servant,

THOS. WORTHINGTON,
Commissioner.

APPENDIX.

NEWSPAPER EXTRACT CONTAINING COPY OF CONCESSION TO A WOOLEN MILL ABOUT TO BE ESTABLISHED.

[See page 172.]

Fábrica de Hilados y Tejidos:

El Consejo de Estado, en ejercicio de sus funciones de Poder Legislativo, decreta:
ARTÍCULO 1.º Acuérdase á los Señores Salvo Hermanos, durante el término de diez años, la exención de los derechos de aduana, para las máquinas y útiles destinados á la fábrica de hilados y tejidos de lana, con sus anexos de lavadero y tintorería, que se propone establecer en el pueblo de La Victoria de este Departamento, siempre que el capital que empleen en las instalaciones no sea menor de cincuenta mil pesos.

ART. 2.º Exonérase por el mismo término de diez años á la dicha fábrica, de todo impuesto interno.

ART. 3.º Quedan obligados los concesionarios á instalar y hacer funcionar la fábrica con todas sus maquinarias dentro de los doce meses siguientes á la fecha de la aprobación de los planos dispensada por el Poder Ejecutivo.

ART. 4.º Como garantía del fiel cumplimiento de las obligaciones que los Señores Salvo Hnos. contraen por esta ley, dispondrán—puesto el cúmplase por el P. E.—en la Oficina de Crédito Público la suma de cinco mil pesos en títulos de deuda pública de renta, los que podrán retirar en el acto en que la fábrica dé comienzo á sus trabajos.

ART. 5.º Comuníquese, etc.

Sala de Sesiones del H. Consejo de Estado, en Montevideo á 21 de diciembre de 1898.

JOSÉ L. TERRA, *Vice-Presidente*,
MANUEL GARCIA Y SANTOS, *Secretario Redactor*.

MINISTERIO DE HACIENDA, MONTEVIDEO, *diciembre 23 de 1898.*

Cúmplase, acóscese recibo, comuníquese á quienes corresponda, publíquese é insértese en el R. N.

CUESTAS,
EUGENIO J. MADALENA, *E. del D.*



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